THE

LITERARY PANORAMA.

FOR APRIL, 1808.

INVASION OF INDIA.

EXPLANATORY REMARKS ON THE ANNEXED MAP OF HINDOOSTAN, WHICH IS COLOURED TO REPRESENT THE DIFFERENT STATES AND POWERS OF THAT COUNTRY.

Circumstances, of which we have anxiously availed ourselves for the benefit of our readers, have placed in our hands information of the most interesting nature, and of unimpeachable authenticity, on the subject of the Expedition to India by the Russian and French armies. That expedition, we have no hesitation in believing, is in progress; and so are measures to render it abortive. We would not assume the tone of fool-hardy confidence as to its final result; though we confess that our anxiety on the subject is not extreme. "The road to London," said the reporter Eschasseriaux, "lies through the East Indies." It may be so; yet our enemies may find it not only a tedious and toilsome, expensive and bloody, but an endless road. The magnitude of the object must plead our excuse for deviating from our custom, in placing this article, the first in our Number; as we could not answer it to ourselves, nor to that confidence with which we have been treated by the public, had we given this communication any but the most conspicuous situation.

This plan was presented to the Empress Catherine II. at a time when her politics were, or affected to be, estranged from the favour which she had shewn to the British nation. It was further fostered by the Emperor Paul, and has been matured between Buonaparté and Alexander.

The Map presented to the reader is the same as that prefixed to the East India Register and Directory*; it has, therefore, the advantage of being officially correct.

The British territories are bounded on the east by the Forests of Aracan; so that the lower parts of the Burhampootra, as well as of the Ganges, are included in the dominions of the Company. It will be observed, that these rivers rise from the same mountains, and almost from the same springs; but one takes an easterly, the other a westerly, course. Happily, the British provinces follow the course of the Ganges, for the countries adjacent to the Burhampootra, are reported to be very unhealthy. Advancing up the Ganges, the countries on both sides of the river to Benares, belonged to the Company, in the time and under the government of Mr. Hastings; from that city upwards, Oude, Agra, the Rohilcund, &c. including Delhi, up to the banks of the Setlige, the British arms have penetrated, in, and since the year 1801, and these are in alliance with the Company, though the Company be not the sovereign. The Setlige is the boundary of the country appertaining to the Seiks, whose dominion extends from thence to the very borders of Cashmere: it is bounded on the west by the Indus, down which river it extends nearly half way from Moultan to its mouth. As the country of the Seiks is intersected by many rivers, and diversified with many mountains, it forms in fact the barrier between Persia and Hindoostan. These people are of modern origin, and have not long occupied such extensive dominions.

* We refer our readers, and particularly such as have relatives in India, to this very useful publication, which gives the particulars of all the European and Native Regiments in the East India Company's service.

Their power has never been fully tried. The Mahrattas, indeed, have invaded them, to their own loss, and severe discomfiture; but hitherto they have not been seriously engaged with Europeans. If they unite in opposing with vigour the inroads of the Russo-Gallic invaders, who must pass through their country, the conflict will be of the most troublesome and dangerous kind to the advancing army. The power of the Seiks is amply sufficient to retard, whether or not, it may prove adequate to repel, the forces sent for India. If on the contrary, the Seiks should unite with Zemaun Shah, of Cabul, and favour the invader, it will be injurious to the British, inasmuch as such an event, would effectually prevent the British from posting troops in this country, where they would be of infinite service; and the enemy would be enabled to pass the rivers, the defiles, and gorges of the mountains, and other dangerous places, not only with safety, but even with ease, and with losses comparatively so small, as not to deserve notice in an undertaking of such magnitude.

An army moving up the Ganges, from Bengal, would be liable to whatever disadvantages were intended it, by the Mahratta State of Berar, an irruption from which, consisting as it would do, of horse, would take an army going north west, in flank, and as it advanced, would be able to cut off its communication with Bengal. The disposition of the Rajah of Berar, is not, at present, such as to lead to the expectation of this treachery, unless the French have corrupted him. Nor does the policy of the Mahratta states lead them to desire the aggrandizement of the Seiks. It may, therefore, be inferred without hazard, that these powers will not cordially unite. The territory of Malwa is divided between the Mahratta chiefs, Holkar, to the west, and Scindea to the east. These would, no doubt, rejoice in any calamity that might befall the British arms, and nothing would please them better than to assist in such an affair; but these chiefs have not long since felt the weight of the Company's power, and they may be expected to look forward to consequences, in case of failure, which, they must well know, would be severe.

It is not situation only that gives importance to these country powers: the nature of the troops they furnish, and the habits of those troops, are of great consequence. The Mahrattas are horsemen; of predatory habits, extremely rapid in their motions, fierce, vindictive, and agile. The forced marches which some of their armies have made, when pushed by urgency, are among the extraordinary efforts of warfare. And the great extent of their country, which forms a line of several hundreds of miles, not very distant, to such troops, from the course of the Ganges, will put into the hands of these people, *if united*, under an active chief, the balance of power between the conflicting parties, and, consequently, the welfare of India. We must always bear in mind, that the power of government is usually in the hands of professors of the Mahometan faith.

But little apprehensions are entertained of the powers north of the British possessions. The population of these countries is not very dense, neither are they combined under chiefs capable of bringing great bodies of them into the field. As soldiers they are brave, but ill disciplined. Their country is strong, mountainous, and woody for the most part, but much of it is, to Europeans, very unhealthy.

Our readers will observe the distance of the army of Madras from the scene of action: together with the still greater distance of the forces on the coast of Malabar. In fact, these establishments could be depended on for nothing further than that assistance to the general effect which is always afforded by maintaining a ready attitude, and a good countenance.

The army in Bombay, and Surat, surrounded as those countries are by Mahratta states of dubious fidelity to their engagements, could not be much diminished with safety to the countries they occupy; and any advance towards the north would be attended with difficulty as well as with danger. But the sea is open to the enterprise of these troops, and of this advantage they cannot be deprived. In short, the maritime superiority of the Company, enables it to derive advantages from all its resources, and to render them effectual to the general and great purpose, that of defeating the intentions of the enemy.

Our Map will enable our readers to draw other inferences for themselves. We shall, no doubt, have repeated occasions to refer to it, and we presume it will be found extremely useful on a variety of occasions besides the present. The following disquisition at once illustrates it further, and is illustrated by it.

CONSIDERATIONS ON THE PROJECTED INVASION OF INDIA BY THE FRENCH, RUSSIANS, AND PERSIANS.

Certainly the minds of sovereigns who are men of business, are the depositories of their own plans, which it is in their pleasure to conceal or to promulgate. Military sovereigns, especially, who have felt the importance of secrecy, in the command of armies, may well be supposed to be extremely jealous of suffering their resolutions to transpire. Much less will they divulge a scheme, when it concerns the dominions of other states, and involves the welfare of those, whether friends or enemies, at whose expence they intend to aggrandize themselves. We shall, therefore, introduce our comments on the plan, now no secret to Europe, for assaulting and oversetting the British power in India, by an overland attack, by declaring that our knowledge of the intentions of Russia on this subject, is derived from the late Emperor Paul himself. During his short reign, that monarch paid great attention to this project; and, more than once in our hearing, avowed his positive determination of putting it into execution. This is saying enough for our present purpose.

To suppose that any mischief of which Britain was the object should exist, without the participation of Buonaparté, would be to defame his character, and to diminish the *obligations* under which this country lies to his animosity and envy. Yet, we shall not affect to affirm with equal precision, what part in this adventure, is undertaken by our arch-enemy, or to know the very *words* of the conventions agreed to at Tilsit. Our private information (from an intelligent foreigner, of whose friendship for our work we have had numerous demonstrations) was the same *for substance* with that promulgated by authority in this country; with these remarkable words attached to it: "*Your country, Sir, could not do otherwise than it has done, if it intended to escape the most powerful combination (snare) ever laid for it.*"

We have already hinted, [Comp. Panorama, Vol. III. p. 1108] that we understood the assistance to be furnished by France to Russia, in the first instance, consists in OFFICERS; but this does not exclude *Intrigue*, of which those officers are in fact the instruments. Buonaparté has sent his emissaries to the Persian court; and the Persian court has returned compliments and presents, answerable to his own. The Persian court is, in fact, the center from whence this expedition, if undertaken, must be supported; and we presume that a slight review of such invasions of India from this quarter, as have heretofore been effected, may contribute essentially to the better ascertaining what credit is due to present rumours.

India may be considered as a promontory lying between the river Indus on the west, (say long. 70) and the Burhampootra on the east (say long. 95) extending southward to N. lat. 9, but united on the north to Tartary, on the north east to Cashgur and Cabulistan, and on the west, but across the river Indus, to Persia.

We have very little hesitation in placing the *original* India on the *north west* side of the head of the Indus, i. e. the most *easterly* province of the Persian empire: called by the Persians, "the East," or even "India;" (Esther i. 1. viii. 9) for, we have no reason to think, that the Persian empire, even when at its greatest height, ever established a *permanent* dominion over any province of the present Hindoostan.

As the Brahmins of India say that they came into this country from the north west, and by the pass of Hurdwar, we might consider this passage as the first acknowledged intercourse, irruption rather, from Persia to India. But, as we have no authentic memorials whereby to state this event historically, we shall direct our attention to cases more analogous to the object of the present paper.

Alexander of Macedon, whom his partizans dignified with the title *Great*, was intent on raising himself to the honours of Divinity: for he had discovered that sundry mortals like himself, had effected this distinction *.

* We are not to suppose that Alexander was foolish enough to fancy the possibility, that he could be received as one of the ancient *twelve* Great Gods of the Heathen: the most he could expect, would be, as actually took place in Egypt, that he should be received as the *thirteenth* deity, and associated with those of the upper rank. But he knew, that Hercules, Theseus, and other heroes, had in length of time, by a process not absolutely

Stimulated by such surpassing ambition, this warrior attempted by conquest to extend his dominion, and confirm his authority: Having overcome the Persian power, he carried his arms eastward, to India. The difficulties he had to encounter dispirited his army, and after having made an entrance into Hindoostan he was obliged to relinquish his design. Yet, Alexander, who had levied 30,000 troops in the neighbouring countries, who accompanied his army in person, and who at the furthest could obtain supplies of all kinds, from his established dominions in Persia, had many advantages which have been thought very material in such undertakings. Alexander died more than 300 years before A. D.

What the military ardour of the Grecian hero could not accomplish, was effected by that torrent-like vigour, which not seldom accompanies the burst of a novel superstition. The disciples of Mahomet, 'ere the close of the fourth century, from the rise of their religion, had spread themselves over the East, and after overrunning Persia, had *settled* their power in the kingdom of Ghizni, in the provinces of Chorasan and Cabul, adjoining to the north of India. The locality of this establishment gave them infinite advantages for invading this tempting region. They could select the most proper time, or embrace the most promising opportunity: they were sure of a retreat if defeated, and could renew those armies which might be cut off.

The Mahometan spirit of propagating religion by the sword, animated Mahomed the first, who, on his accession to the throne of Ghizni, vowed the subjugation and conversion of the Hindoos. At the commencement of the eleventh century of the Christian era, he began to execute this vow; and in the course of twenty years he invaded India twelve times; delighting in desolation and carnage, and calling on heaven to reward his zeal and piety! His last irruption ended A. D. 1020. Succeeding Mahometan leaders after innumerable combats, and incalculable loss of lives, penetrated still further into India, and the hallowed city of Benares was stormed and pillaged, about A. D. 1204. The seat of government was removed from Benares to Delhi; and Bengal was subdued by the Mahometan arms in 1225. The mountains, however, continued to resist.

In 1231, an invader, from another quarter, the famous Zengis Khan, directed his efforts to India, and so far succeeded as to reduce the provinces west of the Indus. But, in 1306, Alla, the nephew of Feroz II. who had made his way to the throne by the murder of his uncle, extended his power over the northern provinces of the Deccan; and added to the Mussulman empire, more than half of the great Southern Peninsula.

Tamerlane, the lineal descendant of Zengis Khan, after having desolated the north of Asia, turned his arms to the south, and marched from Samarcand to the Jallali, one of the most westerly branches of the Indus, where he arrived about the end of 1398. He proceeded down the river to the confluence of the Jimboo and Chinab: here he passed the river on a bridge of boats. On one occasion Tamerlane commanded his prisoners to be slain, and in less than an hour, one hundred thousand Hindoos were massacred!—under pretence of glory to God, and the propagation of religion! From this instance our readers may infer the pain we spare them, in describing the expedition of Tamerlane in a single word as a scene of blood. At length, he quitted Hindoostan, without retaining his conquest.

But the invasion of India most entitled to attention under the present circumstances, is that of Nadir Shah, of Persia, in 1737. He first secured Candahar; and quieted the Afghans; being then *invited* by rebels at Delhi; he crossed the Indus, and moved on to Lahore, and to Sirhind, Jan. 8, 1738. He attacked and defeated the Indian army before Delhi: which capital he gave up to plunder. He quitted Delhi, May 4, 1739. The country through which he had advanced being totally desolated by his troops, he was obliged to take another route in his return to Persia. We shall adduce a few particulars of this return, as they may explain somewhat of the nature of the country that lies between Persia and India.

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unlike the beatification and canonization of saints, in the Roman church, been promoted from simple honours to absolute worship: especially in the temples erected to their memory. The worship of Alexander the Great continued to the days of Alexander Severus.

In the month of May the sun's rays were so exceedingly hot and powerful, and the wind so scorching, that the Persians, being unaccustomed to such weather, were unable to support the fatigue, and great numbers of men and cattle expired.—When arrived at the Chinab, so soon as the bridge was formed, the inhabitants, who on the approach of the Persian army had fled to the mountains, came in the middle of the night, and throwing large trees into the river, the rapidity of the stream carried them with such violence against the boats, that the chains which held them together were broken, and a great number of people perished. Nadir was, therefore, forced to pass his army over this river in boats, which detained him several days.—During his march the rains set in: and, had he been detained a month longer, the mountains of Cabul would have been impassable, on account of the snow.—Did not arrive at Cabul till Nov. 20, 1739.—A great proportion of the Shah's plunder of Delhi, was lost in the rivers he passed.—His artillery was conveyed with great difficulty.—Of the elephants that he took away, the greater part died, on the march.

We shall endeavour to direct the information afforded by these instances, to the examination of those plans against India; which we have every reason to expect will be carried into execution by the combined power of France and Russia.

From all these instances of invasion, it appears that the scene of decisive conflict was in the advance to Delhi, and that India was saved or lost, by events that took place in the district of the "Five Rivers," (or the *Panjab:*) which rising in the east, and running westward, fall into the Indus.

Nadir Shah made Candahar the place of general assembly for his army, when advancing against India; and it is understood, that if the troops of Russia proceed by a route different from that adopted by the troops of France, yet that both armies will unite at Candahar.

We consider the Russians as desirous of pursuing a more northerly course, than the French: and assembling their army at Astracan. So far is easy: but, can transport-shipping to convey 40,000 men, with artillery and ammunition be procured at Astracan?—Does the commerce of the Caspian Sea, furnish five or six hundred stout vessels, to convey the whole army at once? If yes, it is much more considerable than we have suspected:—if no, but if there must be several divisions, what management can prevent a fatal loss of time, while the avant corps of the army halts for the rear? We grant, however, that the heavy baggage and stores are sent by water, from Astrakan to Astrabad, from north to south of the Caspian Sea. Another army *may* march by Derbend, cross the Kur and Arras, among other rivers, pass *safely* through Resched, which no army yet ever did, and arrive at Astrabad by land:—this route is mountainous, fatiguing, and unhealthy. Resched is proverbially said by the Persians, to be too bad for even the Angel of Death to delight in. Which way soever conducted, this passage will consume a long time, and if the whole which quits Astrakan unites at Astrabad, better fortune will attend this expedition than is common to armies.

The Russian force with its stores being arrived at Astrabad, every stage which it advances, it is completely in the power of the Persians. It can hardly in its march to Candahar, carry sufficient provisions for the whole of its consumption, even supposing they were procurable at Astrabad: and the country into which it proceeds, cannot supply the sudden demand. It appears from Olivier's Travels, the last that are published descriptive of Persia; that that country is ill cultivated; and that the *deserts* of its provinces increase in extent. For food, then, this army must depend on stores previously collected; which will be both costly, and troublesome to the commissariat. If left to Persian promptitude, India is safe.

In the mean time, a French army may be prosecuting its march, by a more southerly route. The most convenient, if *Messieurs les diables Anglois* did not prevent it, would be to go by sea to Alexandretta, and taking the road from Aleppo to Mosul *, to make for Ispahan. But this sea-route being exposed to a visit from some of the Collingwoods, or the Thornboroughs of the British fleet,

* When Buonaparté invaded Egypt, there were not 5,000 troops capable of any kind of resistance in the whole country, from Alexandretta to Mosul: nor could that number have been assembled in time to oppose his passage. We have this fact from the journal of a British officer on the spot.

the French must either march from Poland, to the Black Sea, and cross it in shipping, or from Dalmatia by way of Constantinople, where they would have a route principally by land. That Constantinople is *to be taken*, we have no doubt; but *it is not yet taken:* and by some lucky chance the craggy mountains between Dalmatia and the Bosphorus, may present unthought of ruggedness to French constitutions. If the route by the Black Sea be preferred, the same question as to the possibility of procuring shipping, occurs with respect to this sea, as to the Caspian.

Admitting, then, in order to combine all chances, that the French army should be divided into two, or more, corps, of 15 or 20,000 men each, and that these traverse the province of Diarbekr, proceeding towards Persia; they will certainly find some parts of their route plentiful; but others are nearly barren. They must reckon on carrying provisions of all kinds (even water occasionally) with them; and when they are arrived at Ispahan, they will be sure to lose time, and much time too, in necessary attendance on the Shah and his ministers. Directly as they are in Persia the followers of the army will be a perpetual plague: they will consume the produce of the country, and in vain may the strangers wish their absence. But granting that all difficulties are overcome, we would ask, what probable number of men fit to encounter the hardships of a campaign will *start* from Candahar for India? No uncommon mortality or disability in a European army, *without seeing the enemy*, is one man in four, at the end of twelve months; but, on a march of such continuance, such perplexities, such sudden, repeated and extreme changes of climate, from heat to cold, &c. such variations in food, water, and accommodations, we may reckon the disability at one half of the whole. And in what condition will the remainder be? Worn down by fatigue: jaded, disheartened and feeble. How often will they have cursed the Emperor, whose iron crowned head and stony heart, had sent them so long a journey from their native homes,—to do what?

It is by no means credible that 40,000 Europeans in one army will quit Candahar, to pass the Indus. But, the moment they pass the Indus, their military labours begin. To these they have hitherto been strangers: we shall, nevertheless, waft them across the Indus, with *some* loss only. They bear down on Attock. This is a place just below where the rivers which rise in the east, fall into the Indus. The river is here of considerable width, dangerous; and here they will meet with a corps of British troops, posted to receive them. If they avoid this passage by taking an easterly course, they will have *five* rivers to cross instead of one; if they move west, not only does the river increase in magnitude, depth, and rapidity, but they approach a country where the fever of the climate is no respecter of persons: and, after all, they will have to encounter a British army stationed at Moultan, or another at Lahore: on one of which the advanced corps at Attock would fall back, supposing it to be under the necessity of retreating. And these armies will be composed of troops accustomed to the climate, abundantly supplied with every thing, and in full vigour for battle.

We may now examine the British power that is to oppose these invaders. The utmost that the Company can spare is 60,000 troops: a body that will be made up of three divisions. First, the Bengal, or rather, the Ganges division: including the provinces along that river. Secondly, the Bombay division, which advancing by Surat towards Moultan, approaches a junction with the former: and, thirdly, whatever can be spared from Madras and its adjacencies; which probably will be the least effective of the three.

But, we strongly insist on placing FIRST OF ALL, a naval force moving on the Indus, and the rivers, consisting of eight or ten floating batteries, manned by British sailors, for the most part. In our opinion this species of force has hitherto been too much overlooked: yet, from its moveable nature, combined with a knowledge of the passages, and the customary intrepidity of those engaged in it, we are convinced it would occasion great perplexity among the French generals. It would take all their operations in flank; and would effectually prevent their retreat, in case of disaster. It would also be terrible to their partizans among the natives, whose towns it could destroy with ease. As the knowledge that these rivers are navigable, sufficiently for this purpose, is not general, we shall adduce some testimony to the fact, from Mr. Arrowsmith's large Map of the Course of the Indus.

" The river Indus admitted of an un-
" interrupted navigation from the [sea up
" the] Gulph of Cutch, to Lahore; for
" vessels of near 200 tons: a distance of
" about 760 geographical miles." " Scy-
" lax built vessels and sailed down the
" Indus," on the Cow, or Cowmull Ri-
" ver, which joins the Indus about lat. 32
" 45, almost three degrees higher than
" the branch which communicates with
" Lahore. " Alexander built vessels on
" the Hydaspes, now Jhylum or Bebut
" River," in about the same latitude, but
" on a branch of the Indus, which is but
" small in comparison with the main ri-
" ver. From lat. 33 to 34, the river In-
" dus was three quarters of a mile, to a
" mile across, in July, 1783."

If we may take the army which vanquished Tippoo Saib, as an instance, the proportion of Europeans in the British army would be about one-fourth part of the whole. That army was composed of

Cavalry	2,635	
Artillery	608	
European Infantry	4,381	
Native Infantry	10,695	
		18,319
Lascars and pioneers	2,483	
		20,802
Detachment under Col. Roberts	6,536	

To this must be added the Bombay army, under Gen. Stuart, composed of 6,420 men. Making in all about 34,000 troops.

These troops we rank generally as fit to oppose the European strength of the enemy: the auxiliaries on each side, may perhaps be considered as balancing each other in military merit. The French, no doubt, intend to derive assistance from Persia: but Persia is too weak to afford much assistance; yet, beside adventurers, it may furnish 20,000 horse,—but destitute of European discipline. Zemaun Shah sovereign of Cabul, must be reckoned French, also; as appears evidently from his correspondence with Tippoo Saib, to whom he writes, " As the object of your well-di-
" rected mind is the destruction of the
" infidels [the British,] and the extension
" of the faith of the Prophet, please
" God we shall soon march with our
" conquering army to wage war with the
" infidels and polytheists, and to free
" these regions from the contamination of
" these shameless tribes, with the edge
" of the sword; so that the inhabitants
" of those regions may be restored to
" comfort and repose: be therefore per-
" fectly satisfied in this respect." This sovereign may furnish 50,000 *plunderers*. From his situation, his coalition is an accession of strength. Nevertheless, the power most to be dreaded, in case of imminent danger, is that of the Seiks. This people occupy the district of the " Five Rivers " (the Panjab), and were they heartily in combination with Ze maun Shah, they might greatly facilitate the passage of troops through their country, as well as impede any advanced posts of British at Attock. But the Seiks are to be purchased; and will sell their strength to the first party that bids for it.

It is true, moreover, that the Afghan powers which occupy many passes in the mountainous regions, are opponents to Persia; and it is enough for Persia to take one side, to determine them to take the other. They are formidable troops to the Asiatics.

The French will find the Mahrattas very difficult to be moved *in force*: but if their intrigues could accomplish this, it would throw great weight into their scale. An extensive insurrection in any other part of India would materially assist their proceedings. The political disposition of British power, therefore, should be, to keep the Mahrattas quiet, as they are at present; to secure the Seiks, and by their means, to advance a corps of observation to Attock: were it possible to push forward a body to Cabul to dispute the mountains between Cabul and Balk, the enemy would have seven or eight hundred miles of fighting, among most rugged mountains, rapid rivers, and dangerous vallies, before they arrived at the grand stationary armies of the British; which would not fail to oppose them effectually, either at Lahore or Moultan. The French, no doubt, bring artillery with them; for if not, how should they oppose the British artillery? And if they do, the delay this *draught* will occasion, will prove very serious. In fact, their greatest enemy of all, is Time, and the seasons, which he governs with absolute sway. If they attempt to accomplish this undertaking in *one* season, they will be so straitened for time, that, the mere

stoppage of their advance for a month, by whatever impediments, will confound their attempt. We have seen that the conquerors of India resided in countries adjacent; they could assemble all their preparations in a complete state, before they actually made any demonstrations. They could *command* supplies, and *enforce* their requisitions on the countries around those through which they passed. These advantages will not be enjoyed by the French; they must *pay*, in some shape or other, for what they consume; a scanty supply would be fatal to them, and pretences to justify a scanty supply would never be wanting—not for one moment in the whole passage. They must *pay* for the cattle necessary for their draught: and these will be liable to an irremediable mortality. They will be subject to pillage from those whom they cannot avoid entrusting with their stores; and the opportunities for pillage and disaster combined will be innumerable, among the mountains especially.——The Russian troops, the Cossacks, and Calmucks, with other hordes, are better adapted to this journey, and were there no rivers to cross, nor any regular force, *increasing as they advanced*, stationed behind those rivers, they might, unquestionably, penetrate into Hindoostan: but, to suppose that these irregulars, however apt for predatory warfare, could support the intense heats, and the perpetual rains of India, yet afterwards meet British troops in the pitched field, is ridiculous.

We know the French so well, that we incline to think they will let the first talk of this scheme subside before they appear to execute it: they will in the mean while be preparing the way, and removing obstacles; then, suddenly, when they suppose British vigilance to be lulled, they will attempt to accomplish the undertaking by the rapidity of their movements. We repeat, "Supposing "British vigilance to be lulled"—Let this sentence be strongly retained in the memory. In fact, we have seen the French avow their plans a considerable time before they executed them: of which their late conduct towards Portugal is an instance. France disclosed her intention of invading Portugal in the Summer of 1806, but did not fulfil this intention till the close of 1807. On the same principle, assuming that the French ambassador at the Persian court is charged with the commission for this purpose and *loaded with money*, he may be occupied in retaining Persian adventurers, in causing the route to be strictly surveyed, in preparing passages, and constructing bridges, in sending emissaries (the greatest charge of all) among the native powers, and in smoothening the difficulties of this undertaking. In the mean while, Russia may collect stores at Astrakan, and forward them by every conveyance to Astrabad, and from thence to Candahar, *before the troops advance into Persia*. Hereby, there may be formed a grand *depot* of military necessaries, and the troops will be relieved from their charge. This is fully enough for one season: and if neither the Persians nor the British should be tempted to seize this depot, then the rapid advance of the army in several divisions, Russian, and French, would become a subject of close reflection to our governors in India. We, therefore, give it as our decided opinion, that the northern entrance of India may be rendered a scene of conflict, of which India is the object. The banks of the Indus may become witnesses of Europeans from the north engaging Europeans from the south; both parties having quitted their native countries, distant some thousands of miles, to wage war in those inhospitable regions. The most extraordinary instance, surely! of the extent, the folly, and even the guilt of human ambition! What a spectacle to the continent of Asia and to the whole globe! What a reproach on the madman of the west!

The advantages of a communication by sea, and of the reception of reinforcements will always be on the side of the British: and we may hint that an expedition, *if in force*, from Bombay for Bassora, or the head of the Persian Gulf, would afford a very sufficient plea to the Persian Emperor for keeping his troops at home, to defend their own country. In fact, there are points on this coast of which advantage might be taken to support some of his opponents; which would speedily convince the Shah that sound policy dictated the utter refusal of permission to any strangers whatever to pass through his country, with views inimical to Britain. Perhaps,

in the event of the invading army advancing into Persia, the detaching of a fleet, with land forces on board, to effect a landing as near as might be to Ispahan, would be no contemptible manœuvre in defending India.

At any rate, this would distract the attention of the Shah: and tend to create a jealousy of his new inmates. In fact, he might be placed in a situation by no means enviable, if a British force could penetrate into the mountains of Cabul, and keep up a correspondence on the east with *unsettled* subjects, and his rivals; while another armament invading his western territories by sea, laid him under the necessity of keeping up a force to oppose them, at a part of his kingdom so distant from the former, that no communication could be maintained between his armies.

We have stated already that the conflict which would involve the fate of India, would probably take place to the North of Delhi: but, even if the enemy should obtain possession of that city, they would not have conquered India. In advancing southward they would find an increasing resistance; while their distance from supplies of an effective description,—their European supplies—would increase, and the difficulties of repairing their losses would be augmented in proportion, at every advance. Their progress down the Ganges would be slow, in the face of a British army disputing the ground inch by inch, and whose losses might be made good by reinforcements, to a certainty.

We reason thus, on the supposition that the country powers continue peaceable and loyal. That the French will endeavour to render them discontented, and inimical, is to be expected. They *may* succeed in this: as report states that they have succeeded in alienating the Shah of Persia. We believe that no adequate cause is known for this alienation; neither may any adequate cause be known for alteration of politics in the courts of India; but if events should prove the fact, the misfortune to Britain would be the same.

We infer, the propriety of conciliating the country powers, by a steady course of justice, integrity, and good faith: and of putting the British themselves, on their mettle; which two principles united, will to a certainty, effect the salvation of India.

The Dangers of British India, from French Invasion and Missionary Establishments. To which are added some account of the Countries between the Caspian Sea and the Ganges; a narrative of the Revolutions which they have experienced subsequent to the Expedition of Alexander the Great; and a few hints respecting the Defence of the British Frontiers in Hindostan. By a late Resident at Bhagulpore. 8vo. pp. 153. Price 4s. Black and Co. London: 1808.

If it were possible that the idea of subduing the Hindoos *by force* to the profession of Christianity, could have arisen in any British mind, or have been fostered by any British governor, we should deem it our duty to protest in the most energetic manner against a principle, or a suggestion so abominable. We have no hesitation in cursing with the bitterest curse, the wretch who first grasps the sword as a mean of propagating the gospel of peace: *Moriatur ultimum suorum;* May he live, till he has no friend left, and die the last of his race! But, in thus venting our malediction, we verily believe that it is spent in empty air, and that not an individual of our countrymen is guilty of the condition on which we utter it. We consider ourselves as possessing as general and as correct information of what passes in the religious world, as can be obtained by any; yet we never heard of the proposition, nor of the most distant surmise of it, till those who were afraid where no fear was, thought proper to sound an alarm, which marked little discretion and less delicacy. Again we repeat our abhorrence of violence, however cloaked under the guise of religion; and with this protestation we take leave of the first part of the present pamphlet, which is allotted to the consideration of the evils that may attend the operations of British missionaries in India.

But, we are far from thinking lightly of the talents or information of this writer, and willingly own that the latter part of his publication contains matter well intitled to the consideration of those entrusted with the important concerns of our nation, and particularly the East India Company. In many of his positions we find a consi-

derable conformity with those which we have already submitted to our readers. We need not repeat, what we have said, as we must do, were we to transcribe this writer's history of the Invasion of India: but, as he seems to be well acquainted with the present state of the countries which border on Persia eastward, we shall avail ourselves of the information which he has been at the pains of collecting. Those who feel themselves more particularly interested in the subject, will of course, consult the work, the political part of which is very creditable to the writer's foresight and judgment. Nadir Shah, says he,

Advanced into Ghasnah, and took the town of that name *, on the 3d May, 1737. Cabul and Peshore, being unsupplied with further aid from India, fell also into his hands. Crossing the Indus, he proceeded by way of Visirabad and Katchee to Lahore, and Sirhind, which he reached the 8th January, 1738: on the 9th he moved to Ambal; the following day to Shahabad, and thence taking an easterly route to cut off the retreat of the Indian army, he attacked it on the plains of Carnoul, and defeated the emperor Mahommed Shah with great slaughter. Delhi fell without difficulty into his hands.

After the Persian invasion, the actual possessions of the Mogul emperor were reduced to the small district lying between Paniput and the Jumna. The Seiks possessed themselves of the Punjab—the Mahrattas and Rajepoot Princes [possessed themselves] of the countries between the Punjab and the Deccan. Oude and its dependences were dismembered by the visier Sufder Jung, and his son Sujah ud Dowlah. Najeeb Khan possessed Rohilcund and Agra, and the Peninsula was occupied by the Mahometan chiefs who had been entrusted with its government. Bengal and Bahar had been also wrested by their Nabobs, and Shah Allum beheld himself the acknowledged emperor of Hindostan, without army, revenue, or establishment.

Persia, from whence arose the evil which precipitated the family of Timur, has also suffered equally with Hindostan. Nearly all the family of Nadir Shah fell in the confusion which followed his death. The only survivor, his grandson Sharoch, long maintained himself in the petty district of Meschid. Kureem-khan established an empire in Southern Persia, and Aga Mahommed formed one in the Northern. Timur Shah, the son of Ahmed Abdalli, succeeded to a part of Khorasan and all Afghanistan, and transmitted his possessions to Zeeman Shah, who imitated his father's example in unsuccessful attacks upon the Seiks, and was obliged to confine himself to his districts west of the Indus. A conspiracy has since deprived him of his throne, liberty and sight; and though a counter revolution has restored him freedom, and given the kingdom of Cabul to his brother, the family of the usurper, Mahmood Shah, have excited divisions in Candahar and Herat, and have endeavoured to establish an independent government in each; while the Afghans and the Chillighis, another race of mountaineers, are contending with each other for the sovereignty of the country.

In southern Persia something of a more stable government was established by Kureen Khan, who, under the humble title of vakeel, and under the pretended authority of one of the Sefi family, ruled the lower provinces with absolute power for the space of thirty years. He died in 1779; but neither the length of his reign, nor the wisdom of his regulations, could secure the succession to his son, or prevent the ravages of civil war. A dispute between his brother and a kinsman ended in the massacre of both, and introduced a more distant relation to the throne. The reign of Jesir was a continuation of internal distraction, and was terminated, in the usual manner, by an assassin. The bravery of his son could not escape the father's fate, and only put off the hour of transferring the empire of Persia from the family of Kureen Khan to that of his mutilated rival Aga Mahommed. This chief, who was of the tribe of Kajjar, celebrated for its courage and duplicity, had, with his family, fallen into the hands of Kureen Khan. The greater part suffered death; but Aga Mahommed was preserved alive, though deprived of manhood and liberty. The latter he recovered on the death of his rival, and repairing to Mazanderan he established himself in its government, and continued to maintain a dubious contest with the several usurpers of Persia, until he at length succeeded to the undisturbed sovereignty of the country on the death of Loolf ali Khan, and transmitted the crown in peace to his nephew, the present king.

* Nadir Shah took the route of Aberkho, Kirman, and Kirk, to Seistan; the latter place he quitted the 24th January, 1736, by way of Dilkhee and Dilaram, and on the 9th February reached Kerchek; on the 10th he crossed the river Hirmend, and experienced some difficulty from the want of fodder; on the 20th he crossed the Argendab, and advanced to Koukeran, within six miles of Candahar, where he arrived the 10th of March, 1736; it stood a siege of twelve months, being taken on the 12th of March, 1737; Bost, Kelat, and Zemindaur, were captured during this interval.

From Candahar Nadir proceeded to Kulat, Karabeg, Gasnah, Cabul, the river Gimrood, the passes of Keiber, Peshore, and the Attock.

But the security of the present king of Persia, Futteh ulla Khan, [Comp. Panorama, Vol. III. p. 190.] is derived more from the exhausted state of the empire than from the attachment of his subjects to his family or person. Weak, indolent, unwarlike, and ungrateful, he possesses little beyond the appearance of power, and though he commands a body guard of twenty thousand chosen cavalry, his military establishment is an object of little real terror. It cannot add much to the actual strength of the invader, and may take away greatly from his subsistence. But should the allied armies of France and Russia appear in the provinces of Persia, that country will have strong motives to court our alliance; we have little evil to dread from its hostility.

There is, at the same time, an hereditary enmity between the Persians and Afghans. The allies of the one will be the foes of the other. The hostile invader of Persia will find many obstacles in his way to Candahar, though the weakness of that power may not be able to repulse them. But the ally of Persia, who may cross the desert with some facility, will be sure to encounter the bristled terrors of war in every defile of Afghanistan. In either case his progress will be impeded, though it may not in either be prevented. The union of both powers cannot, perhaps, overpower the invaders; but this union is not to be expected; on the contrary, the nature of defeated Asiatics should make us prepared to find them enrolled under the banners of their conquerors.

Our opportunities of influencing the Afghans are still greater. A considerable part of their revenue is derived from duties on the merchandize of India, from the tribute of Cashmere, and their remaining possessions on the left bank of the Indus. By possessing the navigation of this river we can, at any time, dry up these supplies. Cashmere can be easily reduced, and with the Afghan district in Hindostan, may be made the reward of our Seik allies, who are the natural enemies of the Afghans. The latter will, therefore, have much to fear from our hostility, while a connection with our enemies will afford them little to hope beyond plunder, hard blows, and the chance of subjugation. All the Asiatics are alive to these considerations whenever they are clearly laid before them.

Such has been the fate of the countries between the Caspian sea and the Indus.

Each province has now its sovereign, and every village its tyrant. From Astrabad to Herat, the country is a prey to the despotism of an undisciplined military, or to the incursions of the Turkmans. Afghanistan, new as the dynasty is, which has been there established, is in its decline. The Seiks, who command the Punjab, have no regard for civil government: but every person who commands ten horsemen, feels himself an independant chieftain, scorns laws, and proclaims defiance to the world. Cashmere and part of Multan and Sind, still pay a public acknowledgment to the Afghans. The Rajepoots, who inhabit the hills between the Punjab and the Deccan, are weakened by mutual conflicts. The Mogul emperor, Shah Akber, is a dependant on the British government, which his unfortunate father deserted: and the British government possesses the banks of the Ganges and Jumna.

The Seiks occupy the Punjab, where they have maintained themselves against the repeated attacks of Ahmed Shah and his two successors, Timur Shah and Zeeman Shah.

The great objects of these people are free exercise of their religion, personal independence, and plunder, rather than domestic occupation. Like the Rajepoot inhabitants of the hills south of the Punjab, they are admirably fitted for the annoyance of an invading army. Offers of service will bring 50,000 to your banners; and the desire of plunder will make them active in harrassing the enemy, whom they will effectually prevent from sending out small detachments, or from covering any greater extent of territory than their army occupies. Accustomed to a life of hardship, they can bear great deprivations; and knowing the effects of want of fodder, they will readily execute any orders for wasting the country in the enemy's line of march, and exposing him to the certain operations of famine.

The Mahrattas were first brought into notice by their successful resistance to Aurungzebe in his expeditions to the Deccan; and under the government of Sevagi and Sambagi, they established a considerable empire between the Nerbudda and the Punjab. They are Hindoos of the Rajepoot tribe, and, like all the inhabitants of hilly districts, more inclined to patriarchal and popular government than to obey a regular chief. Hence the family of their deliverers, above named, soon lost their authority, and were confined in the fort of Setarah, while the government was administered by the descendants of a Bramin, by name Balla-rao, who from the office of secretary rose to the dignity of Peshwa, now enjoyed by his family as a right of inheritance.

As the Mahrattas had been kept together by the sense of danger, and the talents of Sevagi and his son, so the weakness of the Moguls, and the imprisonment of the house of Saho, induced several of their chiefs to assume separate authority. The Boselah chiefs, who were related to the Rajahs of Saho, established themselves in Nagore. Among others Ranojee Scindeah, a husbandman, disgusted with his occupation, entered into the army, and, by his bravery, advanced to the rank of Reseladhar. He left two sons by his wife, and

two by a concubine; of the former, the one Jey-assa was assassinated, and the other, Dotajee-petel, killed in an engagement with Ahmed Shah; of the latter, the elder, by name Tekojee-petel, fell with his nephew Jenghogee, son to the assassinated chief, in the same battle; and the younger, Mha Rajah Scindiah-petel, wounded at Paniput, succeeded to all the wealth of his family, and founded the empire which became so dangerous under his nephew, the present Scindeah, until reduced by the judicious policy of Marquis Wellesley. The Holkars had a similar origin, and have experienced a similar fate.

Speaking of the stores necessary for the progress of the Russo Gallican army, this writer thinks it must carry with it provisions sufficient for the consumption of three months.—We have heard it calculated at a ton of provisions per man. This is extreme. The time necessary for performing the passage our author estimates as follows.

Agreeably to the very accurate account of Mr. Forster, the distance from Candahar to Balfroush is 1120 miles, the greater part of which consists of a sandy desert, ill supplied with water; the remainder of a mountainous, cold and woody country. Mr. Forster left Candahar, with a caravan, on the 8th of October, and arrived at Balfroush the 29th of January, having stopped 23 days at Herah, 15 days at Tershish, 3 at Sharoot, and 11 at other places. His stoppages amounted in all to 61 days, which, deducted from the number between the 8th of October and the 29th of January, leave 56 days for travelling. He performed this journey therefore at the rate of 20 miles a day, and this was as much as it was possible to effect. But an army encumbered by artillery and stores of all kinds, cannot, even when uninterrupted by an enemy, march above 14 miles a day, and should halt every seventh day at least. At this rate it cannot reach Candahar from Balfroush, or Astrabad, in less than 97 days.

Candahar is still far from India. Its distance, by way of Cabul, the usual route, is 523 miles from Attock, and the greater part of it obstructed by hills. This will employ then about 46 days more, even if the Afghans aid them. We cannot therefore consider the march from the Caspian to the Indus, as occupying less than 140 days, or 20 weeks. It will require skill to set out in the best time for crossing the deserts, and to arrive on the Indus before the rainy season.

Compare Panorama, Vol. III. p. 1330, where the reader will find an estimate, by a foreign pen, which assumes much greater rapidity as its basis.

Considerations on the Practicability, Policy, and Obligation of communicating to the Natives of India the Knowledge of Christianity. By a late Resident in Bengal. London, Hatchard, 1808. pp. 101. Price 2s. 6d.

This is by much the best written pamphlet on that side of the question it adopts, which it has been our lot to read. The author opposes the assumptions of Major Scott Waring, who supported Mr. Twining in his alarm on the subject of the British Missionaries in India. He shews that the many thousands of Christians, who inhabit certain parts of India, have been perfectly consistent with the public safety. Missionaries under the Patronage of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, have been established in that country for many years. As he names those missionaries who have been thus employed, we could have wished that he had also named those of *every* description who are at present in India, distinguishing such as were there before the unhappy affair at Vellore [we understand the number was *nine*, only]. If to this a report of the religious works actually printed and dispersed before that date, with the number of each, had been added, we presume that the most cloudy understanding would have been able to deduce the confined effect of these endeavours to christianize the Hindoos; and how little they could contribute to dissatisfy the Sepoys.

It is certain, there neither was, nor had been, any missionary at Vellore, at the time of the massacre; nor is it known, that a single tract on a religious subject had found its way there. As to the *general* conduct of the missionaries, we have heard it well spoken of; and the *single* instance of imprudence which this writer honestly confesses, if we rightly understand his allusion, was nothing beyond *wonderment* among the devotees of Jaggernaut.

We point out this instance, because we have no desire to skreen what is reprehensible, or even what is inconvenient; we desire that *Discretion* should preside "every where always, even sound wisdom, and sound discretion." For the same reason, had we been consulted, we

should have advised the remodelling of a few paragraphs of this pamphlet, towards the close. Whatever are our wishes on the subject, we think some slight variations of expression would have been becoming, *rebus sic stantibus*. We doubt much of the propriety of connecting a vindictive precept given to the Israelites, with the conduct of Britain towards India; or of considering India as a part of the British empire, so perfectly united, that its mal-practices are causes of well-founded reflections on our country, or of "the strongest possible feelings of horror." We do not conceive that we are landlords, and the Hindoos tenants, in any sense or degree, that implies our right to suppress their observances. We may *invite* them to better things; and this is all the author intends; though his expressions are capable of inuendoes that would carry them further.

If our judgment does not deceive us, we recognize in this pamphlet the style of a writer, who from his situation has access to the best authorities. We therefore do not scruple to repeat after him, that not all the laws of the Hindoos are esteemed by them as incapable of suspension, or of correction; and that, in fact, several of them are annulled by the British government; such as the burning of widows (which Dr. Buchanan informs us is falling into disuse, in many parts, and among many parties of Hindoos) the destruction of infants, certain superstitious practices of the Brahmans, who opposed substantial justice by the pretended sanctity of their persons; and other violations of the primary principles and dictates of nature.

By the Hindoo law, to occasion the death of a Brahmin, either directly or indirectly, is an inexpiable crime. In the Bengal provinces, however, Brahmins are not exempted from suffering the punishment of death, when awarded by a legal sentence. That exemption is indeed allowed within the province of Benares, and the sentence is commuted into transportation to the Andaman Islands for life: but this is a punishment not less offensive to the feelings of the criminal than that of the sentence for which it is substituted, and it in fact involves the loss of cast.

The natives of India, whether Hindoos or Mahomedans, have the clearest possible demonstration that no such idea as their forcible conversion can be entertained by the British government. They enjoy the most complete religious toleration: and the performance of the rites and ceremonies of their respective religions is unmolested, and without restriction, even in Calcutta, under the very eye of the ruling power. They see this principle avowed in the laws by which the country is governed; their experience tells them that it is practically observed by all the officers of government, whether civil or military—by judges, collectors, and commercial agents, and by the officers of the army; and they are sensible, that if any violation of it were attempted, redress for the injury might be obtained.

The regulations for the administration of civil justice, which are published in the languages of the country, and now familiar to the natives, not only exhibit a standing document of the tolerating spirit of the British government, but of its attention to the laws and usages of the people. All suits regarding succession, inheritance, marriage, cast, and other religious usages and institutions, are decided by the laws of the parties concerned in them, whether Mahomedans or Hindoos; and native officers, for the special purpose of expounding the Hindoo and Mahomedan law, under the denominations of *pundits* and *muftis* or *moluwees*, are attached to every court.

In all the capital cities, principal towns, and districts, Mahomedan officers, known in this country by the title of *cadis*, are stationed for the purpose of performing the religious duties and ceremonies prescribed by the Mahomedan law, and various other functions, *at the public expense*; and their appointments are so far independent, that they are only removable for misconduct. The criminal justice of the country is still regulated by the Mahomedan code, although with some specific modifications, which even the bigotry of the followers of Mahomed cannot disapprove.

The nature of these modifications may be inferred from the following instances.

First: In trials for murder, the Mahomedan law-officers *are required* to deliver their opinions on the case, according to the doctrines of certain learned expositors of the law named in the *Regulations*; but as these expositors admit many distinctions as to the mode of committing murder, the British government of India has wisely and justly enacted, that no regard be paid to these distinctions; but "the intention of the criminal, either evidently or fairly inferable from the nature and circumstances of the case, and not the manner or instrument of perpetration (except as evidence of their intent), shall constitute the rule for determining the punishment."

Second: The Mahomedan law, with its characteristic bigotry, considers the religious

persuasion of witnesses as a bar to the conviction or condemnation of a prisoner—that is, in other words, to reject the testimony of Hindoos. The British government has most justly abrogated a distinction calculated to defeat the ends of public justice; and the Mahomedan law-officers of the courts *are required* to declare what the sentence would have been, supposing the witnesses to have been Mahomedans; and according to that rule the sentence is given and takes its due course. Reg. 9. (1793) S. 56.

Third: A person deliberately intending to murder one individual, and accidentally killing another, is not by the Mahomedan law held liable to the punishment of murder. The Regulations, in opposition to this rule, declare the homicide under such circumstances murder, and the punishment of it death. Reg. 8. A. D. 1801.

Fourth: By the Mahomedan law, a murderer, though fully convicted, might escape the punishment due to his crime, by obtaining pardon of, or from a compromise with, such heirs of the deceased as were entitled to demand *Retaliation*. And according to an exposition of the Mahomedan law, a father or mother, or grandfather or grandmother, wilfully murdering their child or grandchild, or any person of whom their child or grandchild may be one of the heirs, cannot suffer death by the law of *Kissaas* or *Retaliation*; nor can such a sentence be passed against a master for the murder of his slave, nor against any one for the murder of a slave appropriated by his owners to the service of the public, nor against a person wilfully killing another at the desire of the party slain, &c.

The governor in council declares to all Hindostan, "the Mahomedan law of retaliation, in these and similar instances, to be obviously and essentially repugnant to the principles of public justice;" and that the court of Nizamut Adaulut, provided they see no circumstances in the case which may render the prisoner a proper object of mercy, shall sentence him to suffer death, as if the futwah or sentence of the law-officers had declared him liable to *Kissaas*, or *Retaliation*. Reg. 8. A. D. 1799.

It does not appear that either Hindoos or Mahometans are seriously offended at these improvements on their laws; they see substantial justice executed, and are satisfied. As it coincides with the preceding article, we shall add what our author communicates concerning the Seiks, a sect which is neither Hindoo nor Mahometan, but a mixture of both—a sect that will be better known in Europe, if the French attempt to pass through their country to India.

In the extensive tract of country between Lahore and the Jumna, we find a numerous nation, well known by the name of Sicks. For the origin of this sect I shall take the authority of Mr. Wilkins, who informs us that it was founded about 425 years ago, by a man of the *Khatree*, or military tribe among the Hindoos, who *apostatized* from his religion.*

The creed of the Sicks is diametrically opposed to the popular superstition of Hindostan, which admits and reveres innumerable deities, whilst the Sicks adore but one God, "omnipotent and omnipresent." They consequently reject Brahma and Vishnu, with all his incarnations; and in the place of the *Sastras* of the Hindoos, including their mythological Puranas, have one book of civil and religious institutions, under the denomination of Grunth. They also, in opposition to the Hindoo code, admit proselytes from all other religions. The ceremony of initiation only requires from the new convert a renunciation of his former opinions, and a certain form of lustral purification.—Under these fundamental institutions, the laws or usages of the Sicks permit their proselytes, whether Hindoos or Mahomedans, to follow their own customs as to food and marriage.

This sect, originally established by an apostate Hindoo, and composed chiefly of converts from the Hindoo and Mahomedan faith, now exists in a country formerly the seat of Hindooism, and, if united, could bring into the field a body of one hundred thousand cavalry.

African Scenery and Animals. By Samuel Daniel. On thirty two plates, whole sheet folio, lengthwise, engraved in aqua tinta; and accurately coloured from the drawings. With concise explanations of the subjects. Price £21. Daniel, London.

If any proof were requisite, of our obligations to the graphic arts, for bringing all the world home to our houses, and closets, we should appeal, with the firmest assurance of success, to works of a nature like this before us. Within our remembrance this country has contributed more than it ever did before to the diffusion of general knowledge. The voyages of discovery that have distinguished the reign of his present Majesty, have also contributed essentially to dignify the national character in many important points. Other nations had, each in its way, cultivated some branch of liberal study with

* Asiatic Researches, vol. 1. p. 289.

assiduity, and prided itself on what it had produced as the labours of the intelligent, whom it had enrolled among its citizens either by birth right, or by naturalization. The ocean was left for the exertion of Britain; and Britain hasjustified her claim to the ocean. In comparison with that immense tract which formerly was marked on our globes "*Terra incognita!*" what a small portion is now justly entitled to that denomination. And this small portion is diminishing daily. Even that unpromising clime, which includes the regions of Southern Africa, has been explored, beyond our expectation; and the wilds of this vast promontory have yielded objects of curiosity, hereafter perhaps, to be converted into objects of utility, to gratify the thirst of the inquisitive after knowledge, and to complete those arrangements to which the learned havegiven the name of system. Every discovery, however, while it tends to complete a system tends also to destroy it: for every plant, and every animal though referable for the most part to a particular distinction which art calls class, genus, or species, yet exhibits so many particulars which connect it with some other, that the embarrassments arising from strict adherence to order and method may be thought, in no great length of time, to be more than equal to its advantages.

This work of Mr. Daniel, is absolutely unshackled by the remotest reference to system: it exhibits the subjects on a scale commendable for magnitude and distinctness, and sets before the eye, at a glance, what many pages of description would fail of effecting. In fact, it is the production of an artist. We think it might have been rendered more advantageous to students of nature, by references to the principal works in which subjects congenerous to those delineated, are described: in most of the pages of explanation that accompany the plates there is room for such reference, and any naturalist would have taken a pleasure in conferring this addition on so capital a work.

But, if an artist has accomplished what he proposed, weare to thank him, without teazing him with fruitless wishes, or too late improvements: and we frankly acknowledge our obligations to the worthy author for the sight of sundry unwieldy creatures, which in fact, we had rather see in his prints, than in their native haunts.

The expedition into the interior of Southern Africa of which our readers will find a slight account in the first volume of the Panorama, p. 52, gave opportunity and occasion to this superb performance; which contains views of the Lion mountain, and the Table mountain, at the Cape of Good Hope; of the military station at Algoa Bay; of several houses of the Dutch boors, or planters, of the haunts of elephants, and of the town of Leetakoo, the most northerly situation to which Europeans have penetrated from the Cape. In addition, we have portraits of the natives of the different tribes that inhabit these countries; delineations of their habitations, utensils, and modes of life. These are, apparently, more correct, as well as more distinct, than any with which we were acquainted. Mr. D has also introduced several animals, of species before unknown: and those which had already been noticed by travellers, are here represented with great advantage.

It is impossible for us to describe to our readers what, to judge of it properly, they must inspect, we shall therefore endeavour to render this article useful by the order into which we shall throw our remarks.

In the wildest state of his social existence man is more than the first of animals: he is distinguished by ingenuity in constructing his habitation—his *moveable* habitation: he is the only creature that adds ornaments to his person; the only one that commands the labours and obedience of others. "There is not," says Mr. Daniel, "perhaps any race of people, however savage, that gives itself less trouble in constructing habitations, or that is less encumbered with clothing or domestic utensils, than that particular tribe of Hottentots known to the Dutch by the name of *Bosjemans*. Their hut consists of a mat of grass, bent into a semicircle, and kept in that position, by a few upright sticks, and one of the ends closed by another mat. Their clothing seldom extends beyond the skin of some wild animal tied round the loins. A gourd or an Ostrich egg, serves them for carrying a little water, and a sack of the skin of some of the smaller antelopes for holding their dried locusts, wild honey, or bulbous roots." These sons of carelessness, then, make a provision for futurity, and carry with them

a supply for expected seasons of want. Such is the character of man: he is not exempt from necessities; but capable of providing against them if he chooses to exert his abilities. Even *this* tribe has its belles and its beaux, whose caps are adorned with *Vandykes*, whose legs and arms are decorated with ivory rings, and manacles, and their utensils with figures and studds. They subsist by hunting, and stealing.

"The *Korah* Hottentots, who dwell along the banks of the Orange River, have attained the highest degree of civilization. Their circular huts are constructed with more care and regularity, and the mats with which they are covered are more firmly and neatly made, than what are found among other tribes. They possess also a greater variety of utensils for domestic use; their vessels are sometimes made of clay baked in the sun, of wood hollowed out, and of gourds. Their clothing is not much different from the others, but their persons are more cleanly, owing perhaps to the abundance of water with which Orange River is supplied at all seasons, and more especially in summer. Their animals consist of horned cattle, sheep, goats, and dogs. They have no kind of carriages, but load their oxen with their property: to which they usually add their women and children. The Huts of the Korahs are composed of rush mattings spread over bended sticks; they are of an hemispherical form, about six feet high, and eighteen in diameter, with an aperture on the side for entrance." Orange River is beyond the boundaries of the colony northward; and is upwards of thirty days journey from Cape Town.

The foregoing tribes of Hottentots have been content with mat-walled habitations; but "the Kaffers have" departed from that, perhaps primitive usage of mankind, and "composed their huts of wattling plastered over with a composition of clay and cow dung: they are six or seven feet in diameter with a square opening for an entrance." It is evident that these huts must be stationary, as the plastering would break to pieces, on any attempt to remove the hut. The men not only hunt game, but milk their cattle, of which they are extremely fond. They render them so very docile as to be enabled to direct their motions by whistling, either with the mouth, or an instrument made of bone for the purpose. To render these cattle more beautiful, they cut the ears, the skin of the cheeks, and the dewlaps of their favourites, and twist their horns into a variety of shapes. The women are occupied in making bags of skins, skin cloaks, and baskets for holding milk, with other houshold utensils.

Quitting these inhabitants of dwellings imperfectly constructed of grass, though interwoven, we come to the *Boshuannas*, who compose their huts of well-worked clay, with intervening pillars of wood for strengthening the walls, as well as for supporting the roofs, which are closely thatched with strong grass, and bound together with leathern thongs. These *palaces* of huts, generally consist of three concentric circles, the two interior being wall, and the outward a range of wooden pillars. The centre is their store-room; where their skins, ornaments, &c. are deposited: the surrounding circle forms an apartment proof against the rains; and the exterior is a *Veranda*. But, to complete this dwelling a court yard surrounds it, which is secured by a high thick hedge, or paling of dry brushwood, and in this court the family assembles after the labours of the day, and partake of the evening repast. Here too, stand their granaries, which are large jars, like oil-jars, made of fine clay baked in the sun: they are six or seven feet high, and are capable of containing two or even three hundred gallons. They are raised above the ground by three or more feet; and are strongly thatched. Their contents are polices, millet, and kidney-beans. While the clay is soft, short sticks are inserted into the side of the jars; these answer the purposes of a ladder, and enable children, or others, to reach the top. These jars are made by the women.

The town or city, *Leetakoo*, the capital of the Boshuannas, forms an interesting subject among others, and shews an assemblage of huts, which after the dreary and uninhabited desarts interposed between it and Cape Town, may claim the distinction of a metropolis. It contains from ten to fifteen thousand inhabitants; all of them lodged as above described: and several huts inclosed by one common paling. This town is divided by a river, which in the rainy season is of considerable magnitude; and even in summer, always contains water enough for the gene-

ral supply. * We see then, that in proportion as societies comprize a greater number of individuals, they advance in the arts of accommodation and appearance. We may add, that the arts of accommodation and appearance are closely attendant on societies which comprize great numbers of individuals. In other words population is the parent of emulation.—— Personal decoration is a principle never wholly extinct in the human mind, even among the most savage tribes: and it should seem, that it prevails, or rather, that the means of indulging it prevail, in proportion to the progress of civilization. The finest lady in Europe, for whose ornament every quarter of the globe has been laid under contribution, may exhibit more variety of embellishment as to the materials that adorn her person, and greater skill may have been employed in preparing them for her service, but the sentiment which induces her to sparkle in gems and jewels, is the same in its nature, as that which leads the *Boscheman* women to decorate their krosses with stripes, and to stud their bags with buttons. The heroes of this nation too, to render themselves terrible, stick groups of arrows in a band which they wear round their heads, and thus demonstrate their courage, by displaying their weapons. Yet is this a diminutive race: the men seldom exceeding four feet and a half in stature; the women being still shorter.

If personal appearance might justify vanity, the Kaffers, according to Mr. Daniel, have much to offer in their justification. "If taken in the mass, it may be questioned," says our author, "if any nation can produce so great a proportion of tall elegant figures as appear among them—strong and active—they eat very little animal food; but subsist chiefly on milk.—Were it not for their colour, which is from black to bronze, even Europeans might pronounce them a very handsome race of men." When they go to war, they bind on their head by a fillet of skin the two wings of the Numidian crane, which being very long, and placed bolt upright, give them a peculiar air: not exactly that of Perseus, or of Mercury, though they show the possibility that wings at the head were *fashionable* in the days of those high-flying personages. But, in the time of peace, the Kaffers wear as ornaments, rings of ivory on the arms, a brush of hair attached to the head, and, frequently, a cow's tail attached to the knee. The women wear long cloaks of skins made soft and pliant with great pains, and gayly studded with metal buttons. The heads of the children are, frequently, ornamented with tufts of hair from the Spring Bok.

The *Boshuannas*, who had never seen Europeans, could not be expected to be very rich in brass buttons: but then, they form umbrellas of most beautiful ostrich feathers, under the shade of which they sit, or which they carry when walking, to shelter them from the rays of the sun. The men have rings; and the women have necklaces. The females most certainly deserve even greater ornaments than these, by their industry in forming those magazines of clay, which are to contain the stores of the family. Mr. D. seems to pity them, for being doomed to this drudgery, and he may be right; though we confess, we suspect, that like many other exclamations of dissatisfaction, his complaints are misplaced, and that, while the men are abroad, engaged in the fatigues of the chace, their toils are much more severe than those of the women who are occupied in building jar-granaries at home.

The British Gallery of Engravings, with some Account of each Picture, and a Life of the Artist. By Edward Forster, A. M. F. R. S. & S. A. Chaplain to his Grace the Duke of Newcastle. Nos. I. and II. Price two Guineas each: —— Copies on larger Paper and Type, with Proof Plates, price Three Guineas and a half. Each Number containing four Prints: chiefly about eight Inches by six. Folio. Miller, London. 1808.

The art of Engraving, it has always appeared to us, has great reason to complain of being treated with injustice by the Royal Academy. No more than six professors of the art are admitted as associates, and these never can rise to be Academicians. Neither are the works of any other Engravers than these six admitted into the public exhibitions of that Institution. Engraving, has, however, the means of revenge in its own hands, and we are glad to see a proof of this, in the undertaking under consideration.

C

* Vide the figure, Panorama, Vol. I. p. 53.

Whatever be the merits of a picture, they are confined to that spot, where it hangs; whoever desires to enjoy them must come to the picture; and here, if his gratification be exquisite, it is also transitory;—for the cost is an absolute denial of possession to the generality of amateurs. The art of Engraving, to a degree which entitles it to very grateful consideration, removes these obstacles to permanent enjoyment of works of art; and exhibits to the eye of a thousand spectators, in all parts of the world, at the same time, and at a trivial expence, the *principal* merits of a picture, though it does not profess to comprize the whole of them.

The first merit of a picture is the *thought* adopted by the artist; that effort of imagination which his judgement has selected, as fit to describe his subject, and worthy of commanding his subsequent labour in finishing his work. If this *mental* conception, the very origin and soul of his production, be unworthy, mean, futile, *bad*, whatever be its kind of badness, no merit in the execution can compensate this defect.—But the art of Engraving is capable of shewing the *thought*, the entire mental energy, of any picture, *completely*.

Composition also, and arrangement, style of drawing, grace, dignity, expression, accompaniments,—in short, the *major* principles of the art may be transfused into a print: but the accuracy of colouring, the nicetie, the glazings, the beautiful relief produced by opposing tints, and whatever depends on the *value of colours*, is not to be expected. A print, besides being a mere *chiaro oscuro*, or black and white, being printed with ink of a *solid* kind, has not, cannot have, any *transparency of effect*. We may explain this to our readers, by reminding them, that they have produced the *tender* tints of Indian ink drawings,—the distances, the lighter parts of the sky, &c. by spreading a thin wash of colour, through which the paper shewed its lightness; whereas, on the stronger parts—the foregrounds, &c. they laid on so much of the ink, that they could not discern the paper through it. Nothing of this is practicable in Engraving: the plate being printed with ink of uniform consistence throughout the whole subject.

Neither can an Engraving pretend to *originality*, in the strict sense of the word: it must be admitted, that it is a *repetition* of what has been already composed, *for the most part*:—but the question returns, whether in what remains, there is not sufficient originality to entitle the art to a liberal patronage? and whether policy, itself, were there no higher motive, should not induce painters, and others, whose works are likely to be copied by Engravers, to promote this art to the utmost of their power, since the world at large, unable to inspect their performances, will judge of them, as they appear in prints; and the difference between a subject treated by a master of his art, and by a blockhead, is incalculable.

We war not with the dead; and *Christian* charity may induce us to forgive errors which originated in no disposition allied to itself: but whether that species of charity, which associates with the graphic arts, may forget, as well as forgive, we have our doubts: and in short, to speak the language of the day, we recommend the *emancipation* of the art of Engraving, whether with, or without petition, to the ministers and dignitaries of the commonwealth of taste, and *virtu*, believing it to be equally as loyal and religious as any other branch of art, although excluded at present from places of honour and profit.

The work before us has originated in motives truly honourable to its conductor, Mr. Forster; and we are very heartily inclined to recommend it to the inspection of our readers; after which they will need no recommendation to the purchase. Mr. F. seems to have thought it necessary to justify himself for adopting the *line* manner, or *stroke* Engraving, exclusively, in these prints: in our opinion no justification was necessary: the superiority of this manner over all other, is a fixed point with us: yet we do not coincide unreservedly in the reproaches cast on the manner of Engraving by dots, or the *chalk* manner. Each has, to our eye, its appropriate excellence: the beauty of some prints in the chalk manner, from pictures of Angelica Kauffman, enables it to dispute the palm of honour with any other: and the imitations of drawings after Guercino, by Bartolozzi, are very much superior to what could have been produced, by the

line manner. *Cuique suum*, every one to his own, the motto of Frederick of Prussia, which his successor ought to have acted upon, as he now would be glad to do, may be recommended to the attention of artists. We see no reason wherefore all branches of art may not be *peaceable* rivals; nor wherefore he,

> Who praises Lesbia's eyes and feature,
> *Must* call her sister aukward creature.
> No slander can transplant the bays;—
> Let both be emulous of praise.

The first subject of No. 1. is a Magdalen sleeping, after Ludovico Carrachi, which is extremely well engraved by Mr. Anker Smith. It is entitled to some allowances on account of the age of the picture: we should else have considered the darker tones of the flesh, on which the Engraver has bestowed great attention, as too strongly opposed to the lights. The remedy was easy. The *work* of this plate is sound and good: but some parts of the picture are not calculated to shew it to advantage.

The second subject is a view of Rome, by Wilson, engraved by Middiman: one of Wilson's best pictures; and of Middiman's best plates: but we wish Mr. M. would bestow a little more time on the distances of his skies. That the dry point, is exceedingly favourable to the improvement of patience by exercise, we are well aware: but this artist's works will not be perfect, till he enters into the spirit of our advice. The distant mountains, too, demand more softness.

Vandyk, as Paris, is the third subject; engraved by Schiavonetti. We do not think this ought to be called a *portrait* of Vandyk, the painter rather served for a model to himself in a general sense, than in that particular sense which applies to a portrait. This plate is not only well engraved, but it is engraved with a firmer and bolder *burin* than those of our native artists, contrary to our previous expectation. It is indeed a performance of great excellence.

The last plate of No. I. is Rembrandt's "Christ in the Storm." A magical picture; and engraved with great care by Mr. Fittler. We shall premise, that we have never seen Mr. Fittler to so much advantage as in the work before us; the size and nature of the subjects suit him, and he has treated them with much skill and judgement. This introduces a remark, apparently harsh, yet we hope just, on his management of the water in the front of this subject. By *etching* too much of it, and by resolutely forbearing *interlining*, he has given to this water a *solidity*, which he might have avoided. Even an unpractised eye may perceive that to the foam in demi-tint at the stern of the vessel, the Engraver has given the same character, as he would have done to moss growing on the top of a rock, peeping above the water: it is too *solid*, for its place. The lines of this part of the engraving are too broad in proportion to the whites between them, in order to obtain sufficient colour. Interlining would have prevented this.

The second number opens with "a "Flemish Cottage;" the very best picture of Isaac Ostade, that we remember to have seen; and the best of Mr. Fittler's performances. It is well executed throughout; it possesses a harmony, yet a particularity, which induces the eye to wander over it, with pleasure. In fact, it has great merit; we therefore shall not notice a few *peccadilloes* which our glass has detected on close inspection. The works of this painter are extremely rare.

Salvator Rosa, in the character of a poet, painted by himself, engraved by Neagle, follows in order. We have seen several portraits of this artist, by himself, in other characters; but this has more dignity, and is treated more historically, than any we recollect. Mr. Forster seems to have no doubt of its resemblance; we suffer him to lead our acquiescence. The Engraver has put too much labour into this plate: a less *solicitous* style would have been more favourable to this subject, which has its difficulties in respect to engraving.

A singular instance of perplexity, occurs in the following subject by Rembrandt, which Mr Forster has described as "Samuel and Eli," while at the same time he confesses that the principal "figure has, *very much the character of a woman*;—this too is much strengthened by the want of that characteristic mark, a *beard*:"—why, truly, we think so; and, if Mr. Forster had added, that Rembrandt, had he designed to have marked a priest, and especially a high priest, as Eli was, would not, could not, have omitted a *mitre*; and that in the days of Eli there was no *temple*, no building erected for

public worship, but a tabernacle, only, he would have acquiesced in the impossibility of the *woman* being Eli, and the youth, who has no levitical dress on, as Samuel would have had, being that young prophet. What then is the subject? We answer, it is, that of Joash son of Ahaziah, who was removed from among the king's sons whom Athaliah wounded and left for dead, by his aunt, Jehoshabeath, the wife of Jehoida, the high priest,—she hid him in the house of God six years. 2. Chron. xxii. 11. 12. Rembrandt has represented the education of the future king in the principles of religion by his pious patroness. Her husband is engaged in the ceremony of the redemption of a first-born, in the back ground. That the scene passes in the temple, is evident, by the cherubim on the good old lady's chair: which emblem was not permitted out of that edifice. So much for the subject of this picture. The plate is engraved by Fittler.

The last subject is a Holy Family after Murillio, by Heath, which is good, in *parts*. The principal figure, is simple; and the Engraver has treated it in a *simple* style. The child is good; and the management of the demi-tint thrown over him is good; but the head of the Holy Mother demanded a richer style, and indeed the whole of her drapery required enriching. Bartolozzi would have treated this in a manner, that by heightening the power of the picture, in parts that want it, would have rendered this plate abundantly more satisfactory to the eye: the draperies are worked too much alike, yet the general effect is well; and the harmony of the whole is respectable.

We shall not be expected to consider so fully the following numbers of this work: we repeat our wishes for the success of the undertaking, and are happy to announce labours so truly deserving of honour, to our own countrymen, and to the artists on the Continent. Let *them*, too, see and confess, that the arts, and the spirit to promote them, have not forsaken our island. We even look forward with a pleasing hope, amounting in fact to expectation, that commissions from the Continent for English prints will again be numerous, and that the presses will find themselves straitened to supply them.

The description of the different subjects are given both in the English and French Languages, which we trust are fully sufficient to describe their beauties in the most remote parts of the world.

We could be glad if in prosecuting this undertaking, Mr. Forster would indulge himself in a more liberal communication of historical information, whether respecting the master whose picture is the subject of remark, or the picture itself. It were perhaps, too much, to expect, such a critique on each article as might contribute to render it a lesson to unpracticed connoisseurs, whose knowledge of hands cannot but be imperfect and confined; or to artists who from such exercitations might derive many useful hints of caution or of encouragement. Such a work is to be wished for; but the firm mind, as well as steady hand which it requires does not fall to the lot of many amateurs. The arts must be thankful for the encouragement which undertakings of great cost and hazard, as well as magnitude afford them, without repining for advantages which are rather to be wished and desired than expected or realized.

Mr. Forster has received permission from a very respectable list of noblemen and gentlemen to avail himself of their collections: such liberality augurs well for the arts; and must be taken, in connection with other instances, as truly honourable to the times in which it prevails.

Illustrations of Shakspeare, and of Ancient Manners: with Dissertations on the Clowns and Fools of Shakspeare; on the collection of Popular Tales entitled Gesta Romanorum; and on the English Morris Dance. By Francis Douce. The Engravings on Wood by J. Berryman. In 2 Vols. 8vo. price 36*s*. Longman and Co. London, 1807.

English antiquities in general, and the customs, manners, and phraseology of our forefathers, are much indebted to the celebrity of our great dramatic poet. The various attempts to illustrate Shakspeare, have furnished a rich treasury of antiquarian lore; and although we sometimes see with regret the margins of some editions of our bard's immortal works, crouded with notes, which, while they inform the understanding of the reader, certainly distract his attention; yet we are free to confess that we should be sorry to see them expunged. Now and then a trifling annotation occurs;—trifling, how-

ever, as it may appear to some persons, it no doubt conveys material information to others. Sometimes different explanations of the same passage occur; and the last note not unfrequently renders the preceding ones of little importance to the elucidation of the author; yet even hence we derive information and amusement. These notes may be perhaps irrelevant to the purpose for which they have been introduced, but very curious in themselves; while the ingenuity with which critic after critic offers his opinion, and supports his interpretation, supplies materials for a very curious section in the history of the human mind. In this instance the editors of Shakspeare have done exactly as those who have edited ancient works:

> "Critics I saw, that other names deface,
> And fix their own, with labour, in their place:
> Their own, like others, soon their place resign'd,
> Or disappeared, and left the first behind."
>
> *Pope's Temple of Fame.*

Mr. Douce writes as becomes a scholar and a gentleman. He points out the mistakes of some of his predecessors, but it is without asperity. He makes liberal allowance for the peculiarity of their feelings arising from education, complexion, local situation, or the course of study which has principally occupied their attention. We evidently see that he enters into the true character of Steevens, of Johnson, of Ritson, and of Warburton; but he contents himself with laying the result of his own reading before us, without indulging that bitter spirit of reprehension, which, treating mistakes like crimes, has disgraced so many critics.—In his preface, his language now and then, manifests a degree of stiffness, which surprizes us:—"The practice, and also the necessity of explaining the writings of Shakspeare, have already been so ably defended by former commentators, that no other apology on the part of those who may elect to persevere in this kind of labour seems to be necessary than with regard to the qualifications of the writer." This is part of the first sentence: and afterwards, p xiii, he says, the "*Gesta Romanorum* had been already disserted on by Mr. Warton." The word "dissert" does not occur in Johnson's dictionary.—But these are trifles.

The indefatigable exertions of Messrs Steevens, Malone, Tyrwhitt, and Mason, will ever be duly appreciated by the true and zealous admirers of Shakspeare's pages. If the name of a celebrated critic and moralist be not included on this occasion, it is because he was certainly unskilled in the knowledge of obsolete customs and expressions. His explanatory notes therefore are, generally speaking, the most controvertible of any; but no future editor will discharge his duty to the public who shall omit a single sentence of this writer's masterly preface, or of his sound and tasteful characters of the plays of Shakspeare. Of all the commentators Dr. Warburton was surely the worst. His sentiments indeed have been seldom exhibited in modern editions but for the purpose of confuting them.

This last is one of the severest things in the book. Certainly the lovers of Shakspeare are much beholden to the commentators here enumerated; but the name of Farmer might have been mentioned; nor should Theobald's name have been omitted.

Although the strict restitution of the old orthography is not meant to be insisted on, nor would indeed accommodate the generality of readers, there are many instances in which it should be stated in the notes; and such will occur to every skilful editor.

We have ever lamented the tampering with the orthography of our ancient writers. Except in Capel's edition, we do not read Shakspeare's language in any which has been published for these hundred years. Even the orthography of the once authorised translation of the Bible; which has been said to have given a fixedness to our tongue, has been modernized again and again, without authority, as it has passed through the press from time to time. This is pulling up the foundations, and removing the landmarks of language; this is mixing things new and old, and making the English bible speak the dialect and adhere to the spelling of no age whatever.——

Tempest, sc. 2, p. 11.

Mira.——————or *e'er*
It should the good ship, &c.

This word should alway be written *ere*, and not *ever*, nor contractly *e'er*, with which it has no connexion. It is pure Saxon. The corruption in Ecclesiastes cited in the note is as old as the time of Henry the Eighth; but in Wicliffe we have properly "*er* be to broke the silveren corde," and so it is given by Chaucer.

In Crannmer's, or the Great Bible, 1539, —we read " or ever the sylver lace be taken away." We shall here give a similar use of the word *ever* in the sixth of Daniel—" so the lyons had the mastry of them, and brake all theyr bones asonder, *or ever* they came at the ground." Cranmer's bible. " Or ever" 1039, and all copies following king James's revisal.—Is there not an essential difference between Saxon, Anglo-Saxon, and English ? We should print as Shakspeare wrote English ; now the word " ever" (contractedly *e'er*) has held its place in our tongue, in the sense which this passage supplies from Henry viii's to the present time.

By way of specimen of Mr. Douce's diligence, and the extent of his reading, we give the following note :

Tempest, sc. 2. p. 26.

Ari. ————————sometimes I'd *divide*
And burn in many places ; on the top-mast,
The yards and bowsprit, would I flame distinctly,
Then *meet and join*—

This is a very elegant description of a meteor well known to sailors. It has been called by the several names of the fire of *Saint Helen, Saint Elm, Saint Herm, Saint Clare, Saint Peter,* and *Saint Nicholas.* When ever it appeared as a single flame it was supposed by the ancients to be *Helena*, the sister of Castor and Pollux, and in this state to bring ill luck, from the calamities which this lady is known to have caused in the Trojan war. When it came double it was called Castor and Pollux, and accounted a good omen. It has been described as a little blaze of fire, sometimes appearing by night on the tops of soldiers' lances, or at sea on masts and sail-yards, whirling and leaping in a moment from one place to another. Some have said, but erroneously, that it never appears but *after* a tempest. It is also supposed to lead people to suicide by drowning.

Further information on the subject may be collected from Plin. *Hist. Nat.* l. ii. c. 37. Seneca *Quæst. Nat.* c. l. Erasm. *Colloq. in naufragio.* Schotti *Physica curiosa*, p. 1209. Menage *Dict. etym.* v. *Saint Elme.* Cotgrave *Dict.* v. *feu, furole.* Trevoux *Dict.* v. *furole. Lettres de* Bergerac, p. 45. Eden's *Hist. of travayle*, fo. 432 b. 433 b. Camerarii *Horæ subsecivæ* iii. 53 Cambray *Voy. dans la Finisterre* ii. 296. Swan's *Speculum mundi* p. 89. Shakspeare seems to have consulted Stephen Batman's *Golden books of the Leaden goddes*, who, speaking of Castor and Pollux, says, " they were figured like two lampes or cresset lightes, one on the toppe of a maste, the other on the stemme or foreshippe." He adds, that if the light first appears in the stem or foreship and ascends upwards, it is good luck ; if *either lights begin at the top-mast bowsprit* or foreship, and descend towards the sea, *it is a sign of tempest.* In taking therefore the latter position, Ariel had fulfilled the commands of Prospero to raise a storm.

It however appears that Ariel's light began at the beak and flamed in the waste, the deck, the cabins, then on the topmast, &c. so that it ascended, as well as descended, and ascended first, burning in many places ; and therefore the " sign of tempest" did not so decidedly appear, as Mr Douce seems to think.

P. 12. Mr. Douce says that " the incident of Miranda's surprize at the first sight of Ferdinand, might have been suggested by some lost translation of the 13th. tale in the *Cento novelle antiche.*" This is bending a keen eye on vacancy. To have said " might have been suggested by a known translation," had not been so very faint a notion ; but to suppose a translation, and then to suppose it lost ; and then to suppose that this supposed lost translation might have suggested an incident is going very far. Let us allow our bard a little aptness at invention. We are fond of shewing how he came by every scene in every act ; and where we cannot shew this, we conclude that he must needs have copied some original author. Grant only that Miranda had never seen any man except her father ; and her surprize at seeing Ferdinand follows so naturally that neither Shakspeare, nor even the dullest poet could miss it.

Twelfth Night, act. 2. sc. 5.

Mal. I will be *point-de-vice* [*device*]

As the instances of this expression are of rare occurrance, those which follow are offered as likely to be useful to the author of any future work that may resemble the well-planned, but unfinished glossary of *obsolete and provincial words* by the late Dr. Boucher. In the interlude of *The nature of the four elements*, Sensuality, one of the *dramatis personæ*, promises a banquet

" Of metys that be most delycate,
Which shall be in a chamber feyre
Replete with sote and fragrat eyre
Prepared *poynt-devyse.*"

Part of Mr. Douce's note we shall print: it is curious, and, we are free to confess, new to us.

There was no occasion for separating the two last syllables of this term, as in the quotation from Mr. Steevens's text, nor is it done when it occurs elsewhere in his edition. It has been properly stated that *point-device* signifies *exact, nicely finical*; but nothing has been offered concerning the etymology, except that we got the expression from the French. It has in fact been supplied from the labours of the needle. *Point* in the French language denotes a *stitch*; *devisé* any thing *invented, disposed* or *arranged*. *Point-devisé* was therefore a particular sort of patterned lace worked with the needle; and the term *point-lace* is still familiar to every female. They had likewise their *point-coupé, point-compté, dentelle au pointe devant l'aiguille*, &c. &c. The various kinds of needlework practised by our indefatigable grandmothers, if enumerated, would astonish even the most industrious of our modern ladies. Many curious books of patterns for lace and all sorts of needle-work were formerly published, some of which are worth pointing out to the curious collector. The earliest on the list is an Italian book under the title of *Esemplario di lavori: dove le tenere fanciulle & altre donne nobile potranno facilmente imparare il modo & ordine di lavorare, cusire, raccamare, & finalmente far tutte quelle gentillezze & lodevili opere, le quali pò fare una donna virtuosa con laco in mano, con li suoi compasse & misure. Vinegia, per Nicolo D'Aristotile detto Zoppino*, MDXXIX. 8vo. The next occurs was likewise set forth by an Italian, and entitled, *Les singuliers et nouveaux pourtraicts du seigneur Federic de Vinciolo Venitien, pour toutes sortes d'ouvrages de lingerie*. Paris, 1588, 4to. It is dedicated to the queen of France, and had been already twice published. In 1599 a second part came out, which is much more difficult to be met with than the former, and sometimes contains a neat portrait, by Gaultier, of Catherine de Bourbon, the sister of Henry 4th. The next is *Nouveaux pourtraicts de pointe coupé et dantelles en petite moyenne et grande forme, nouvellement inventez et mis en lumiere. Imprimé à Montbeliard*, 1598, 4to. It has an address to the ladies, and a poem exhorting young damsels to be industrious; but the author's name does not appear. Vincentio's work was published in England, and printed by John Wolf, under the title of *New and singular patternes and workes of linnen, serving for paternes to make all sortes of lace, edgings and cut-workes, newly invented for the profit and contentment of ladies, gentlewomen, and others that are desirous of this art*. 1591, 4to. He seems also to have printed it with a French title. We have then another English book of which this is the title: *Here followeth certaine patternes of cut-workes: newly invented and never published before. Also sundry sortes of spots, as flowers, birdes and fishes, &c. and will fitly serve to be wrought, some with gould, some with silk, and some with crewell in coullers: or otherwise at your pleasure. And never but once published before. Printed by Rich. Shorleyker.* No date, in oblong 4to. And lastly, another oblong quarto entitled *The needles excellency, a new booke wherein are divers admirable workes wrought with the needle. Newly invented and cut in copper for the pleasure and profit of the industrious.* Printed for James Boler, &c. 1640. Beneath this title is a neat engraving of three ladies in a flower garden under the names of Wisdom, Industrie, and Follie. Prefixed to the patterns are sundry poems in commendation of the needle, and describing the characters of ladies who have been eminent for their skill in needlework, among whom are Queen Elizabeth and the countess of Pembroke. These poems were composed by John Taylor the water poet. It appears that the work had gone through twelve impressions, and yet a copy is now scarcely to be met with. This may be accounted for by supposing that such books were generally cut to pieces, and used by women to work upon or transfer to their samplers. From the dress of a lady and gentleman on one of the patterns in the last-mentioned book, it appears to have been originally published in the reign of James the first. All the others are embellished with a multitude of patterns elegantly cut in wood, several of which are eminenty conspicuous for their taste and beauty.

It is therefore apparent that the expression *point-devise* became applicable, in a secondary sense, to whatever was uncommonly exact, or constructed with the nicety and precision of *stitches made or devised by the needle.*

Twelfth Night, sc. 2. p. 109.

Sir. To. Go write it in a martial hand; be *curst* and *brief.*

Of the latter sentence Dr. Johnson has not given the exact explanation. It alludes to the proverb, "A curst *cur* must be tied *short.*"

There is another proverb; "a curst cow has short horns."

Twelfth Night, sc. 2. p. 127.

Sir. To. He is a knight, dubb'd with *unhack'd rapier*, and on *carpet* consideration.

The original word is *unhatch'd*, and if any

alteration be admitted it should be *an hatch'd*, for the first reason assigned in Mr. Malone's ingenious note. Sir Toby says that his brother knight was no hero dubbed in the field of battle, but a carpet knight made at home in time of peace with a sword of ceremony richly *gilt or engraved*. In *Don Quixote*, the damsel whom Sancho finds wandering in the streets of Barataria disguised as a man, is furnished with "a very faire *hatched* dagger," chap. 49 of Shelton's translation. In *The tragical history of Jetzer*, 1683, 18mo, mention is made of "a sword richly *hatcht* with silver." Thus much in support of the above slight alteration of the old reading. The second conjecture of Mr. Malone, that *unhatcht* might have been used in the sense of *unhack'd*, deserves much attention; but there was no necessity for introducing the latter word into the text. To *hatch* a sword has been thought to signify to *engrave* it; but it appears from Holme's *Academy of Armory*, B. iii. p. 91, that "*hatching*, is *to silver or gild* the hilt and pomell of a sword or hanger."

With respect to *carpet* knights, they were sometimes called knights of the *green cloth*. For this information we are also indebted to Holme, who in his above cited work, B. iii. p. 57, informs us that "all such as have studied law, physic, or any other arts and sciences whereby they have become famous and serviceable to the court, city, or state, and thereby have merited honour, worship, or dignity, from the sovereign and fountain of honour; if it be the king's pleasure to knight any such persons, seeing they are not knighted as soldiers, they are not therefore to use the horseman's title or spurs; they are only termed simply *miles & milites, knights of the carpet or knights of the green cloth*, to distinguish them from knights that are dubbed as soldiers in the field; though in these our days they are created or dubbed with the like ceremony as the others are, by the stroak of a naked sword upon their shoulder, with the words, *rise up Sir T. A. knight*."

The knight Banneret received the accolade on the field of battle; and on account of actual service had the privilege to use a standard of a particular form. The sword laid across his shoulders, was commonly one used in the recent encounter and therefore, probably, *hacked*; for the swords of those days had their tempers tried on armour of proof. The simple knight, who received his honour at court, or in a chamber on a progress; having never seen service, was dubbed by the application of a sword worn for ornament, or carried for state and therefore unhacked. But, may not also the custom of conferring knighthood, for political services,—carpet consideration—subjects *sur la tapis*, be glanced at here, among many other innovations of the time?—Whereas knighthood had always heretofore been the reward of military merit.

Midsummer Night's Dream, sc. 1. p. 32.

Puck. But they do *square*.

Dr. Johnson has very justly observed that to *square* here is to quarrel. In investigating the reason, we must previously take it for granted that our verb *to quarrel* is from the French *quereller*, or perhaps both from the common source, the latin *querela*. Blackstone has remarked that the glasiers use the words *square* and *quarrel* as synonimous terms for a pane of glass, and he might have added for the instrument with which they cut it. This he says is somewhat whimsical; but had he been acquainted with the reason, he might have been disposed to waive his opinion, at least on the present occasion. The glasier's instrument is a *diamond*, usually cut into such a *square* form as the *supposed diamonds* on the French and English cards, in the former of which it is still properly called *carreau*, from its *original*. This was the square iron head of the arrow used for the cross-bow. In English it is called a *quarrel*, and hence the glasier's diamond and the pane of glass have received their names of *square* and *quarrel*. Now we may suppose, without straining the point very violently, that these words being evidently synonimous in one sense, have corruptedly become so in another; and that the verb *to square*, which correctly and metaphorically, even at this time, signifies *to agree* or *accord*, has been carelessly and ignorantly wrested from its true sense, and from frequent use become a legitimate word. The French have avoided this error, and to express a meaning very similar to that of *to quarrel* or *dispute*, make use of the word *contrecarrer*.

It is remarkable that, "to square," has now a fighting sense. Two men about to box, in the pugilistic vocabulary, are said to square at each other.

Love's Labour's Lost, sc. 2, p. 367.

Prin. As *bombast*, and a lining to the time.

Bombast is from the Italian *bombagia*, which signifies all sorts of cotton wool. Hence the stuff called *bombasine*. The cotton put into ink was called *bombase*. "Need you any inke and *bombase*?" Hollyband's *Italian schole-maister*, 1579, 12mo, sign. E. 3.

There is no cotton in bombasine. It is made of wool, or mohair, and, we believe, a little silk.——

Merchant of Venice, act 1, sc. 1, p. 397.

Salar. There, where your *argosies*, with portly sail
Like signiors and rich burghers *of* the flood,
Or as it were the *pageants* of the sea,
Do overpeer the petty traffickers.

It has been suggested that the word "*argosies*" is a corruption of "ragosies" i. e. ships of *Ragusa*. We agree with Mr. Douce in deriving the word from the name of the famous ship *Argo*. A contemporary of Shakespeare uses the term "argosie" for a ship of burden; Sandys, we mean, whose first edition of his travels was published the year before Shakspeare died; viz. 1615. Speaking of the sovereignty of the Adriatic Sea claimed by the *Venetians*, he says; "the pirats hereabout do now more than share with them in that sovereignty; who gather such courage from the timorousnesse of diuers, that a little frigot will often not feare to venter on an *Argosie*." We do not remember to have seen this passage quoted before.—We here beg leave to mention a circumstance in proof of the accuracy of Sandys as a traveller. We had the anecdote from an officer on the staff in the *successful* expedition to Alexandria.—When the English found it necessary to penetrate into the interior of Egypt, they were much at a loss for maps of the country, and in fact had none that they could rely on. By good fortune, a copy of Sandys was found in the possession of a French prisoner; and our venerable countryman proved a most faithful guide to the British army, leading them step by step, with the utmost correctness. Our readers may rely on the truth of this anecdote.

Mr. Douce inclines to the old reading "Burghers *on* the flood." We venture to remind him of a passage in "As you like it."

——"the poor dappled fools
Being native Burghers *of* this desert city."

Merchant of Venice, sc. 3, p. 441.

Enter Shylock. His stage dress should be *a scarlet hat lined with black Taffeta*: this is the manner in which the Jews of Venice were formerly distinguished.

Did not Macklin dress Shylock in this very manner? We remember that dramatic veteran relating with no small pride, the reforms he had introduced in stage costume. He related his going into Duke's Place, and finding out an Italian jew, who told him how the jews were habited at Venice. Before Macklin's time, Shylock was dressed exactly like a jew broker about the Change. Macklin first dressed Macbeth in the Scottish habit: before Macklin played the character, he had always appeared before in a general's uniform. Mr. Douce in his 2d. vol. has an essay "on the anachronisms and some other incongruities of Shakspeare;" in which he mentions some absurdities of this kind; and speaks of Garrick's playing Hamlet "in a common French suit of black velvet." Does not Kemble continue to dress the Prince of Denmark in the same style?—Much is yet to be done in order to increase stage effect. Certainly the clowns are all erroneously dressed. In page 310, Mr. Douce points out the absurdity of Touchstone's three-cornered hat. The expenses of stage decoration, and the costly splendour of stage dresses, are very great. Perhaps, to consult some person skilled in the architecture of ancient times, such as Mr. Carter particularly, would save a great deal of money, in the formation of scenery; for there are no bounds to the lavish extravagancies of fancy; and to ask the opinion of some antiquary of taste, would save no inconsiderable sums in providing habiliments; for appropriate habits would eventually cost less than the gaudy vestures invented by playhouse taylors and mantua-makers. Mr. Douce has supplied several plates of the dresses and baubles of ancient clowns; and it would almost immortalize any one of our Laurents, our Grimaldis, our Bolognas, or our Montgomeries, who should have sense enough first to revive and adopt them.

Merchant of Venice, act. 2, sc. 5.

Shy. The *Patch* is kind enough.

Patch was a common name given to clowns, or fools (of which Mr. D. enumerates and distinguishes between two sorts, the natural and artificial fool) of old time. In the middle counties women call a peevish child a "cross patch," at this day; and we have heard such a one called "a *tyrant*;" that is a *tiresome* child. *En passant*, is not our term "an *arch* fellow," derived from Archee, the famous court jester, of bitter memory?

P. 292. Mr. D. speaks of the professed design in the Merchant of Venice to vilify an ancient and respectable, but per-

secuted nation." We feel for the Jews as much as Mr. D. or the "modern dramatic writer to whom the jewish people are under the highest obligations." But in vain are all attempts to remove the weight of odium under which they lie. Even in the course of philological disquisitions, we cannot compromise for a moment with the pseudo-liberal spirit of the day. Had merely political circumstances cast the jews into the unhappy situation which they occupy, we should have regarded Mr. D's. sentiments with silent approbation. But we deem, as Mr. Addison long since taught us, the condition of the Jews to be a standing miracle. We look at them with mingled reverence and pity; and happy should we be to see that day when the outcasts of Israel shall be collected from the corners of the earth. The same hand which scattered them abroad, and continues to preserve them, can alone gather them together. Till then, notwithstanding the feeble attempts of a few individual men of feeling,—if there be truth in Revelation,——they must remain "an astonishment, a proverb, and a by-word among all nations." xxviii. Deut. 37.

As You Like It, sc. 2, p. 54.

Jaq. But that they call compliment, is like the encounter of the *dog-ape.*

Bartholomœus, speaking of the apes, says: "some be called *cenophe*; and be lyke to an *uounde* in the face, and in the body lyke to an *ape*." Lib. xviii. c. 96.

Dog apes can only mean *he* apes.

P. 253—4. Winter's Tale. Mr. D. here, himself, bears testimony to Mr. Theobald's critical talents; in a case where he contended with Warburton, whether Shakspeare had been indebted to Ovid or Lucian for a speech of Antolycus's.—

Winter's Tale, sc. 2, p. 113.

Clown.—But one puritan amongst them, and he sings psalms to hornpipes.

An allusion to a practice, common at this time among the Puritans, of burlesquing the *plein chant* of the Papists, by adapting vulgar and ludicrous music to psalms and pious compositions.

Here we think Mr. D. mistakes. The Puritans wrote ludicrous compositions adapted to the music of pious Hymns in the Romish church. It is well known that the tune of "Jonny Anderson my Jo" was originally sung to the words of a hymn, and also, played slowly and solemnly, was the tune of "Moggy Lauder." But, perhaps, Mr. D. meant to say, that the Puritans adapted pious compositions to such tunes as were then in vogue, though originally composed for songs, &c. This would have been much nearer the truth. This was justified by the opinion and practice of George Whitfield; who "did not see why the devil should have all the good music:"—and something like it may be heard in certain chapels, where the tunes of "God save the King"—"Rule Britannia,"—and other popular airs, are sung to hymns used in public worship, which from the structure of their stanzas must have been composed purposely to suit those tunes.

Winter's Tale, act. 4 sc. 3, p. 359.

Clown. Clamour your tongues.

We believe, notwithstanding the ingenious reasoning of commentators, and the learning of Mr. Douce himself on this text; that Shakspeare merely intended to exhibit the clown in a ludicrous light, by making him utterly mistake the meaning of many of the words he used, and apply them to purposes the very "reverse of what was required." So Dogberry repeatedly expresses himself. Nevertheless, so far as our bell ringing knowledge extends we have always understood, that to *clamour* bells, was to cease the regular peal, and quit ringing: the effect of this cannot be other than an irregular noise as each bell is brought home.

King John, sc. 1, p. 44.

K. John. Have brought a *countercheeck* before your gates.

Mr. Steevens thinks this one of the *old* terms used at chess, but none such occurs in any of the treatise on that game, it is presumed to be simply a military word. Thus the bastard afterwards asks, "shall a single wanton brave our fields and find no *check*?" and we still say "the enemy has received a *check*."

How came Touchstone, in "As you like it," by his "*countercheck* quarrelsome?"

King Henry IV. sc. 3, p. 528.

Fal. There's no more truth in thee, than in a *drawn fox.*

The quotation from Olaus Magnus does not support Mr. Steevens's assertion that the fox when *drawn* out of his hole was supposed

to counterfeit death; for it is stated by that writer, and indeed by others, that he uses this device when hungry, to attract the birds, who mistake him for carrion. The following passage from Turbervile's *Noble arte of venery or hunting* is offered, but with no great confidence, as a possible illustration of the phrase in question: "Foxes which have been beaten have this *subtletie*, to *drawe* unto the largest part of the burrow where three or foure angles meet together, and there to stand at baye with the terriers, to the ende they may afterwardes shift and goe to which chamber they list."

A drawn-fox, is merely a dead fox *drawn* over the ground for a given distance to exercise the hounds. They think they are running a living fox; but it is only a trail; not real game.

We must here stop for the present. In a future number we shall, in all probability, give a few extracts from the 2d vol. We have suppressed many passages which we had noted for quotation.—Would any one suppose it possible, and yet it is a fact, that Mr. Douce should be in possession of "an old French Rapier" on which are these lines, incorrectly read by Pistol, handling his sword, which he calls Hiren,

> "Si Fortune me tourmente
> L'Espérance me contente?"

We refer our readers to the book itself, where they will see an engraving of the Rapier; and where we can promise them a fund of entertainment. There are many wooden and other curious cuts in these volumes. But we must have done with it at present.

Marmion; a Tale of Flodden Field. By Walter Scott, Esq. 4to. pp. 377. Notes 126. Price £1. 11*s*. 6*d*. Fine paper, £3. 3*s*. Constable, Edinburgh. W. Miller, London, 1808.

The author of "the Lay of the Last Minstrel," had honourably created great difficulties for himself, in reference to whatever subsequent work he might undertake. Whether his song was of war or of peace, of love or of enmity, whether of public event, or of domestic occurrence, he had sung so well of these, that to whichever he inclined, he could not avoid being his own competitor. Border manners are Mr. Scott's *forte*, and they supply no incompetent variety of materials to poetry, although their general character be that of battle, and murder, and sudden death. Rough were the features, and hard the hearts, of the borderers: rude was their behaviour, and coarse was their language. Their delight was violence, and even their superstitions were characterized by energy little short of uncontroulable. The barons, who held these parts under their respective sovereigns, judged honourably of each others prowess, and maintained a romantic regard for that valour which each beheld in his antagonist, and for the duties of that office which each was conscious that he endeavoured to discharge, to the approbation of his own mind, of his countrymen, and of his sovereign.

How much happier are the present times! Travellers need no safe conduct; no passport under hand and seal; they find no distinction between English and Scottish ground, when they cross the Tweed; and not so much as a turnpike gate marks the limits of the two countries, where formerly the advance of a few feet, was an intrusion not to be tolerated. Yet the knowledge of what has been, awakens conceptions of what might be; and we well remember to have cast repeated glances along the stream of Tweed, to those haunts, where, in our mind's eye, we saw the moss-troopers lurk, for mischief, and discerned a race of sallow black featured marauders; ferocity seated in their countenances, desperation in every action, their hearts insensible to compassion, and their consciences *unsullied* by remorse. That was fancy:—but fancy though apt to magnify every object on which it dwells, and especially those that by reason of the lapse of time, it cannot but see through the mists of obscure tradition, yet inadequately conceives the calamitous state of the countries belonging to either nation, where hereditary quarrels were bequeathed from generation to generation, and whatever motives for vengeance the father had received from his ancestors he transmitted in full vigour to his son. We, therefore, repeat our congratulations on the tranquil days of George the third, and rejoice that however war may rage externally, peace is within our borders. Only in fiction, do we now behold the

> Neighing steed, and the shrill trump,
> The spirit-stirring drum, th'ear-piercing fife,
> The royal banner; and all quality,
> Pride, pomp, and circumstance of glorious war.

The Marmion of Mr. Scott, is founded on border manners; but is particularly attached to events which preceded the battle of Flodden Field. By this historical *datum* Mr. S. has fixed a period of which the customs and practices are within our ken, and of which our historians have left us accounts. His hero, however, is the creature of his own conception, and so are most of his principal characters; he therefore has had full scope for his imagination, and his poem may be considered as deriving every advantage, from liberty of thought, sentiment, and action. Marmion is an English warrior, valiant, heroic, sagacious, but his sagacity is capable of degenerating into craft, and his valour is shaken by conscious guilt. His honour is stained by his having carried off a nun from her convent; who long follows him as his page, yet whom he abandons, through mercenary motives, and offers himself as a suitor to another lady whose lands attract his cupidity. This lady is pre-engaged; and Marmion to wreak his vengeance on her knight, and accomplish his purposes, proclaims him a traitor to the King, succeeds in proving his treason by a *forged* letter, artfully conveyed into a packet addressed to him, meets him in single combat, overpowers him, and by the laws of duel, claims the lady who was the prize of the combat, with the lands of his worsted adversary. Marmion is sent by King Henry of England to demand of the Scottish King James, the reason of his hostile preparations; but, when arrived on the borders, wanting a guide into Scotland, he is furnished with one, who proves to be his former antagonist, in the disguise of a palmer or visitor of holy places. In the course of the poem this knight-palmer overcomes Marmion, at midnight; in the character of an Elfin warrior, the forged letters are also entrusted him under his disguise; he is dubbed again, and performs wonders in the battle of Floddon. In that battle Marmion falls, and is brought a little way out of the conflict, to die at the feet of the lady whose hand he had solicited, from motives of convenience.

The episodes in the main action, are,—the punishment of the nun whom Marmion had seduced, by her being immured, according to the sentence of her superiors; and to the laws provided for that transgression,—an intrigue of King James with the wife of an English Governor, who is at his court, as a pledge for her husband;—and an unaccountable curiosity in Marmion, to vanquish an Elfin knight, at midnight, in order to pry into future, or distant events. *This* incident must not be examined too strictly, as to its probability; for, we believe, that few persons charged with a public character from sovereign to sovereign, would quit the line of duty for the indulgence of this inquisitive disposition, founded on no higher authority than the chatter of a host, at an inn. The description of the herald sent by King James to meet Marmion, and that of the Scottish camp, previous to its moving southwards, may also be considered as episodes: and together with some excellent specimens of song-writing, contribute to diversify the poem. The least pleasing parts as they stand, are the Introductions prefixed to each canto. Each being half as long, nearly, as the canto itself, and consisting wholly of modern ideas, it has the effect of confusing the mind; it produces too forcible a revulsion, from what is ancient to what is modern; as the canto recalls the imagination from what is modern to what is antient. We had occasion to mention this inadvertence when reporting on Mr. Sotheby's Saul; but Mr. Scott has far exceeded Mr. Sotheby in this inconvenience.

The poet has disposed of his characters with the most laudable attention to morals. Marmion perishes in fight: his paramour, Constance de Beverley, is immured, and dies miserably. King James, losing time and opportunity by dalliance, loses the battle, and his life; The Palmer Wilton, in recompence for the disgrace he had undeservedly incurred, regains his estates and honours, together with his troth-plight, Clara, who gives proofs of unchangeable constancy in her affection for him, notwithstanding she is, for a time, in the power of Marmion, his rival. The versification of this poem has been solicitously constructed; it is varied to relieve the ear, and is generally harmonious and forcible. The conduct of the story is regular; and in short, the author has felt throughout the whole, that he had a character to lose; and was determined that it should not be lost, for want of circumspection. If Marmion

had been published *before* the "Lay of "the Last Minstrel," it might perhaps have taken the place of that poem in the opinion of the public; as it is, we apprehend that there may be readers who will discern in this Poem more art, than in the former; and will imagine that what it gains in dignity, it loses in ease. It is less sprightly, and less fanciful, but it is more heroic, and more stately.

We confess, that we regret, the dreadful death of Constance, whose attachment merits a better return from Marmion, even while we acknowledge that her transgressions deserve adequate punishment. In quitting her convent she sinned against duty and decorum, against modesty and sanctity; but, it does not appear, whether her seclusion was forced, or voluntary. We cannot help wishing that some of the darker shades of her guilt had been softened, and that a less terrible fate might have been allotted to her with justice.

A hero who is all perfection,
A faultless monster which the world ne'er saw,

will never be imagined or adopted by a poet of genius; but the disparagements of that character which is to raise our sympathy, should be rather defects than crimes. That conduct which demands the axe of the executioner, is too lightly punished by undistinguished sufferings; the common fate of all, or of many, is no just retribution for uncommon guilt. That criminals of the deepest dye have exhibited striking marks of heroism, we allow, but that it would be judicious to select such an one for the hero of a dignified poem, we deny. We feel more resentment and indignation against *forgery* and the evils it induces, than compassion for the pravity by which it has been committed. Open enmity, may become an honest and a respectable foe, but the dark arts of insidious malevolence, are shocking to upright minds. The balance of opinion ceases to vibrate, which vibration marks our tremulous sympathy, when guilt not incident to general nature, is thrown into the scale of a character, whatever be its merits. We, therefore, could have wished, the English knight had exhibited failings, not so abhorrent to virtue, and that his excellencies had been counterbalanced by weakness rather than by wickedness.

Mr. Scott professes,

Not to rhyme to that dull elf,
Who cannot image to himself,
That all through Flodden's dismal night
Wilton was foremost in the fight,
That when brave Surrey's steed was slain,
'Twas Wilton mounted him again;
'Twas Wilton's brand that deepest hew'd,
Amid the spearmen's stubborn wood:
Un-named by Hollinshed or Hall,
He was the living soul of all——

Yet we cannot help thinking, that, as he was to be the prosperous character of the piece, Wilton might have met the eye more prominently; his previous history might have been more developed, and his *original* connexion with Clara (which, no doubt, had, according to rule, something extraordinary for its basis) might have increased our interest for him, and for her, too. We know too little of his real history, to judge of his merits. We might have learned his character more fully from admissions of Marmion himself, or even from the Abbess, by a few additional stanzas, with scarcely any perceptible digression.—To point out specks in a work of merit is invidious; yet, when a few strokes with the pen may amend them, it is due to justice. The speech of the host, in which he describes the appearance of the "wizard strange," is sufficiently learned for Mr. Scott himself, and therefore too learned for this character: his mention of "Pharaoh's *Magi*,"—his allusion to the wizard's zone,

Of *virgin* parchment thin,
Or, as some tell, of dead man's skin,
Bore many a planetary sign,
Combust, and retrograde, and trine,

sounds to us rather above mine host's degree of knowledge. Also, if king James assisted in a dancing party with his spurs on

(White were his buskins; on the heel
His spurs inlaid of gold and steel)

we remit him for his reprimand to the boor of Russia, Peter I, who boxed the ears of one of his courtiers in the royal ball room, before all the company, for a like offence against gallantry. Neither can we approve of connecting the late bombardment of Copenhagen with visions foreshewing the invasion of Scotland by Edward I. The interval is too vast, without one connecting link; and the idea it

raises in the mind is *modern*,—therefore exceptionable.

A royal city, tower, and spire,
Reddened the midnight sky with fire;
And shouting crews her navy bore
Triumphant to the victor shore.

After hinting at these trifles, we cheerfully transcribe some of those beautiful passages which distinguish this poem: our readers will not expect any connexion in them, and we shall not enlarge in our remarks.

After a song of exquisite taste, sung by one of his attendants, that brought his guilt to mind, our poet describes its effects on Marmion, adding,

High minds, of native pride and force,
Most deeply feel thy pangs, Remorse!
Fear, for their scourge, mean villains have,
Thou art the torturer of the brave;
Yet fatal strength they boast to steel
Their minds to bear the wounds they feel,
Even while they writhe beneath the smart
Of civil conflict in the heart.
For soon Lord Marmion raised his head,
And smiling, to Fitz-Eustace said:
"Is it not strange, that, as ye sung,
Seemed in mine ear a death-peal rung,
Such as in nunneries they toll
For some departing sister's soul?
Say, what may this portend?"——
Then first the Palmer silence broke,
(The live-long day he had not spoke);
"The death of a dear friend."

Marmion, whose steely heart and eye
Ne'er changed in worst extremity;
Marmion, whose soul could scarcely brook,
E'en from his king, a haughty look;
Whose accent of command controul'd
In camps the boldest of the bold——
Thought, look, and utterance fail'd him now,
Fall'n was his glance, and flush'd his brow:
For, either in the tone,
Or something in the Palmer's look,
So full upon his conscience strook,
That answer he found none.
Thus, oft it haps, that when within
They shrink at sense of secret sin,
A feather daunts the brave;
A fool's wild speech confounds the wise,
And proudest princes vail their eyes
Before their meanest slave.

Mr. Scott's delineation of the Highlanders is poetic, and to a considerable degree new: a few words, describing the mode of life of some of them, their manner of being let down over the rocks for the purpose of bird-catching, with a few other well-selected fearful particulars, would have added a finishing to the portrait.

Next Marmion marked the Celtic *race*,
Of different language, form, and face,
A various *race* of man:
Just then the chiefs their tribes array'd,
And wild and garish semblance made;
The chequer'd trews and belted plaid,
And varying notes the war-pipes bray'd
To every varying clan.
Wild through their red or sable hair
Look'd out their eyes with savage stare
On Marmion as he pass'd:
Their legs above the knee were bare;
Their frame was sinewy, short, and spare,
And hardened to the blast;
Of taller race the chiefs they own
Were by the eagle's plumage known;
The hunted red-deer's undress'd hide
Their hairy buskins well supplied;
The *graceful* bonnet decked their head;
Back from their shoulders hung the plaid;
A broadsword of unwieldly length;
A dagger proved for edge and strength;
A studded targe they wore,
And quivers, bows, and shafts,—but, O!
Short was the shaft, and weak the bow,
To that which England bore.
The Isles-men carried on their backs
The ancient Danish battle-axe.
They raised a wild and wondering cry,
As with his guide rode Marmion by.
Loud were the clamouring tongues, as when
The clanging sea-fowl leave the fen,
And, with their cries discordant mixed,
Grumbled and yelled the pipes betwixt.

The incidental meeting of Clara and her lover, Wilton, with her assistance in the ceremony of knighting him, is well imagined; and poetically expressed; but it seems rather strange, that the valets should recognize the palmer when clad in armour, though he declares that

Living eye could never guess
De Wilton in his Palmer's dress;
For now that sable slough is shed,
And trimmed my shaggy beard and head,
I scarcely know me in the glass.

Necessity has obliged the poet to trespass in this circumstance, as Marmion would otherwise have wanted a clue to unravel more mysteries than one.

The following passage has struck us a peculiarly beautiful. The dying Marmion exclaims

——Is there none
Of all my halls have nurst,
Page, squire, or groom, one cup to bring
Of blessed water from the spring,
To slake my dying thirst?

O, woman! in our hours of ease,
Uncertain, coy, and hard to please,
And variable as the shade
By the light quivering aspen made;
When pain and anguish wring the brow,
A ministering angel, thou!—
Scarce were the piteous accents said,
When, with the baron's casque, the maid
To the nigh streamlet ran:
Forgot were hatred, wrongs, and fears;
The plaintive voice alone she hears,
Sees but the dying man.
She stooped her by the runnel's side,
But in abhorrence backward drew,
For, oozing from the mountain's side,
Where raged the war, a dark red tide
Was curdling in the streamlet blue.
Where shall she turn!—behold her mark
A little fountain-cell,
Where water, clear as diamond spark,
In a stone bason fell.
Above, some half worn letters say,
"Drink.weary.pilgrim.drink.and.pray.
For.the.kind.soul.of.Sybil.Grey.
Who.built.this.cross.and.well."
She filled the helm, and back she hied,
And with surprize and joy espied
A monk supporting Marmion's head;
A pious man, whom duty brought
To dubious verge of battle fought,
To shrieve the dying, bless the dead.

Mr. Scott has omitted magic in this poem, yet it has its presages, omens, and unaccountable informations: they are, however, no more than the supposed time of the poem fully warrants. From these specimens our readers will form a judgment on Marmion. It is animated, vigorous, and expressive; it contains touches of exquisite nature, and delightful art. That some variations might have improved it, in our opinion, we frankly avow, but such as it is, it will be read and admired, by minds capable of poetical feeling.

We have already said, that the introduction to each canto interrupts the main story: yet these have their beauties, too. They describe generally domestic scenes of modern times; but we select for our specimen, the bard's recollection of Christmas.

And well our Christian sires of old
Loved, when the year its course had rolled,
And brought blithe Christmass back again,
With all his hospitable train.
Domestic and religious rite
Gave honour to the holy night:
On Christmass eve the bells were rung;
On Christmass eve the mass was sung;
That only night, in all the year,
Saw the stoled priest the chalice rear.
The damsel donned her kirtle sheen;
The hall was dressed with holly green;
Forth to the wood did merry men go,
To gather in the misletoe.
Then opened wide the baron's hall
To vassal, tenant, serf, and all;
Power laid his rod of rule aside,
And ceremony doffed his pride.
The heir, with roses in his shoes,
That night might village partner chuse;
The lord, underogating, share
The vulgar game of "post and pair."
All hailed with uncontrolled delight,
And general voice, the happy night,
That to the cottage, as the crown,
Brought tidings of Salvation down.

The fire with well-dried logs supplied,
Went, roaring up the chimney wide;
The huge hall table's oaken face,
Scrubbed till it shone the day to grace,
Bore then upon its massive board
No mark to part the squire and lord.
Then was brought in the lusty brawn,
By old blue-coated serving-man;
Then the grim boar's-head frowned on high,
Crested with bays and rosemary.
Well can the green-garbed ranger tell,
How, when, and where, the monster fell;
What dogs before his death he tore,
And all the baiting of the boar;
While round the merry wassel bowl,
Garnished with ribbons, blithe *did* trowl.
There the huge sirloin reeked; hard by
Plumb-porridge stood, and Christmas pye;
Nor failed old Scotland to produce,
At such high tide, her savoury goose.
Then came the merry masquers in,
And carols roared with blithesome din;
If unmelodious was the song,
It was a hearty note, and strong.
Who lists may in their mumming see
Traces of ancient mystery;
White shirts supplied the masquerade,
And smutted cheeks the visor made;
But, O! what masquers richly dight
Can boast of bosoms half so light!
England was merry England, when
Old Christmas brought his sports again.
'Twas Christmas broached the mightiest ale;
'Twas Christmas told the merriest tale;
A Christmas gambol oft could cheer
The poor man's heart through half the year.

Mr. S. illustrates, in this description his notes, by the same extract from Ben Johnson's Masque of Christmas, as we gave in Panorama, Vol. III. p. 801. We are always obliged by this gentleman's notes. They usually contain information, well deserving to be known; and they illustrate ancient usages, and still more antient superstitions, several of which are local, only, to great advantage. We should gladly transcribe some of them, had we

not already exceeded our usual limits. But we cannot resist the temptation of adding an instance which confirms an historical fact, while it shews that Mr. Douce's sword [Panorama, vol. IV. p. 51,] is not a solitary instance of good fortune.

A very antient sword, in the possession of Lord Douglas, bears, among a great deal of flourishing, two hands pointing to a heart, which is placed betwixt them, and the date 1329, being the year in which Bruce charged the Good Lord Douglas to carry his heart to the Holy Land. The following lines (the first couplet of which is quoted by Godscroft as a popular saying in his time) are inscribed around the emblem:

So mony guid as of ye Dovglas beine,
Of ane surname was ne'er in Scotland seine.
I will ye charge, efter yat I depart,
To holy grawe, and thair bury my hart;
Let it remane ever BOTHE TYME and HOWR,
To ye last day I sie my Saviour.
I do protest in tyme of al my ringe,
Ye lyk subject had never ony keing.

This curious and valuable relique was nearly lost during the civil war of 1745-6, being carried away from Douglas Castle by some of those in arms for Prince Charles. But great interest having been made by the Duke of Douglas among the chief partizans of Stuart, it was at length restored. It resembles a Highland claymore, of the usual size, is of an excellent temper, and admirably poised.

The Iniquity of Witchcraft, censured and exposed. being the substance of two Sermons delivered at Warley, near Halifax, Yorkshire. By T. Hawkins. Price 6d. Holden and Dawson, Halifax, 1808.

It is so long since we read the "Dæmonologie" of King James, or the "Discovery of Witchcraft," by Reginald Scott, that we had almost forgot that ever such characters as witches and wizards had existed among us. We find, however, by Mr. H. that credulity still yields a revenue to impostors; and that "the man who has lately set up this diabolical profession at L—— has sometimes thirty people at a time, waiting on him." That he does more harm than good will easily be believed. The author appears to be a well meaning man; and a scriptural preacher: directly, therefore, as we have heard that his discourses have produced their intended effect, we shall recommend a visit to Warley, near Halifax, to certain persons, who by affecting to be wiser than becomes them, render themselves liable to suspicion of *mysterious* communications.

Le Siége de la Rochelle, ou Conscience et Malheur. Roman, par Mme de Genlis. 4 vols. 12mo. price 12s. Paris, 1808. Dulau and Co. London.

Another production from the prolific pen of Mme. de Genlis. To display the firmness of true piety under affliction is the object, and forms the principal trait of this romance, which is a most impressive contrast to the wretched trash daily issuing from our own novel manufactories, to the disgrace of their authors and their supporters. We select Mme. de Genlis's own words, in order that our readers may be fully informed of her real intent; premising, that she previously alludes to those publications which have abounded in France in consequence of the revolutionray madness of the philosophers.

On a peint le fanatisme, c'est-à-dire un zèle extravagant et sanguinaire, beaucoup plus réprouvé par l'évangile que par la seule sagesse humaine; on a peint l'exaltation de toutes les passions dangereuses: pour moi, j'ai voulu peindre, dans cet ouvrage, la seule exaltation qui ne puisse produire des excès nuisibles aux autres et à soi-même, la seule qui soit toujours accompagnée d'une invariable modération de principes, la seule qui laisse subsister ensemble ce qui, dans toutes les autres, se détruit mutuellement: la douceur et l'énergie, l'enthousiasme et la raison, l'ardeur passionnée et la constance. J'ai voulu peindre enfin l'exaltation de la véritable piété. J'ai réfléchi à l'utilité dont elle pouvoit être aux autres et à soi-même, dans toutes les situations de la vie et dans l'abîme le plus profond du malheur; et c'est uniquement d'après cette recherche que j'ai composé le plan de ce roman.

A translation of this interesting work by Mr. Dallas is, we understand, now in the press, and will soon appear.

Sainclair, ou la Victime des Sciences et des Arts. Par Mme. de Genlis. 3s. Paris, 1808. Dulau and Co. London.

Again Mme. de Genlis!—She here appears holding up to contempt the present ridiculous, extravagant mode of educating females in France, who, to gain celebrity, neglect the more amiable and domestic accomplishments. It is a pleasing little performance interspersed with sprightly and judicious observations arising naturally from the subject.—A translation has appeared.

A Statement of the Numbers, the Duties, the Families, and the Livings, of the Clergy of Scotland. Drawn up, in 1807, by the Rev. William Singers, Minister at Kirkpatrick-Juxta. 8vo. pp. 71, price 1s. 6d. Park, Edinburgh. Harding, London, 1808.

Audi alteram partem, is a fair and obvious rule of justice and equity: therefore, as we gave in our third volume, p. 1080, a statement of the laity *versus* the clergy of Scotland, we shall now give such extracts from this statement of the clergy *versus* the laity, as may shew that both sides ought to be heard before any decisive opinion be formed on the truly important subject of provision for the clergy. As it is well known that we wish the clergy of every denomination to be comfortable, and we go further,— we wish them to be respectable as to worldly things, we shall not enlarge in our introduction of this article, but shall suffer the simple narration of facts to speak for itself. Mr. Singers appears to be well acquainted with his subject; his pamphlet, having received the sanction of the ministers of the presbytery of Lochmaben, may be considered as official; and as the discussion is conducted in a temperate and manly way, we doubt not, but it is well entitled to confidence. We are the more induced to treat this subject with respect, as it affords a fair counterpart to our statement of the clergy and church of Ireland, in Vol. III. p. 225. We recommend this little tract, as containing much information, comprised in a short compass.

The number of ministers who enjoy benefices and possess ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is 936. Of this number 77 are placed in collegiate charges, mostly in the proportion of two ministers for each of these charges; and the remaining 859 ministers are settled in single charges, each of them having the superintendance of a whole parish.

If the whole extent and population of Scotland, as returned in the year 1801, were equally divided among all the 936 ministers who labour in the church of Scotland, the surface in each ministry would be found extending 32¾ square miles, or 20,906 English acres; and the population would be found amounting to 1709 souls, without including the army, the navy, or the militia.

The duties of the Scotish clergy are numerous and laborious. They officiate regularly in the public worship of God; and, in general, they must go through this duty twice every Sunday, (exclusive of other occasional appearances,) delivering every Sunday a Lecture and a Sermon, with Prayers. It is also expected, throughout Scotland, that the prayers and discourses shall be of the minister's own composition; and the prayers in all cases, and the discourses in most instances, are delivered without the use of papers. It may therefore be conceived, that the labour of study a nd preparation cannot be little. But the clergy have also many other duties to perform.

These other duties are,—examination—visiting of their people—presiding in sundry meetings—the care of the poor—giving advice—superintending schools, &c.

The author details the necessary expences of a minister's family, and calculates them at £300 a year; a sum which is *double,* to the real average of the income of the clergy! Whence he justly infers, that their prudent economy does them honour.

The provision which has been made by the law of Scotland, in support of the clergy, is a stipend, payable in victual, or in money, or partly in each; a small glebe of land; a manse (parsonage house) and office-houses; and a sum of money for defraying the expence of the minister in dispensing the sacrament of the Lord's supper. The latter runs in general from 100 merks Scots, or 5l. 11s. 1⅓d. sterling, to 100 pounds Scots, or 8l. 6s. 8d. sterling. This allowance is destined for a special purpose; and is barely adequate to this purpose.

Besides the glebe, the minister of a landward parish is entitled to as much grass-lands as may support a horse and two cows. The grass is to be "designed" out of church-lands lying contiguous; and if these be wanting, an allowance is granted in money by statute.

The glebe was originally fixed at four acres; Mr. S. acknowledges, that in point of fact, they usually exceed this allowance. The *grass land* which *was* another benefit, being valued at a remote period at only, £1. 13s. 4d. sterling, has fallen in so much in value through time, as not to be worth a plea.

The present state of the stipends paid to the Scotish clergy exhibits extreme inequalities. In some parishes, where there are plenty of teinds, the stipends are much more liberal than in others where the valued teinds are scanty. In cities and towns, the stipends are generally paid in money; in landward parishes, they are, for the most part liqui-

dated in money and victual: when the teinds are exhausted and surrendered, the stipend is exactly the whole of the valued teinds, which consist sometimes partly in victual, and partly in lambs, wool, &c.; but, in general, these teinds are valued in money. In the Orkney and Shetland Isles, the stipend is partly modified in malt and butter, being the natural produce of the country, prepared in a marketable form.

The clergy in Edinburgh have their stipends paid in money, and receive 260l. each, liable to a deduction of 10 *per cent.* for tax on income. [Lately augmented to 300l., free of taxes.] In landward parishes, the stipends, at an average, may be stated at six chalders of victual, worth 16l. per chalder, *communibus annis*, and 50l. in money; in all, 146l. sterling. Some of the clergy enjoy a more liberal provision, rising to about 200l. a-year, or thereby; but others are still far below the above-stated average, not a few of them being under 60l. and many below 100l. a-year of stipend. The average is, therefore, considered as hardly rising to 150l. a-year at the present time.

The lowest stipend for a parish minister was fixed, by statute 1617, 3, at five chalders in victual, or five hundred merks Scots in money, being 27l. 15s. 6d. and the highest was fixed at ten chalders in victual, or 1000 merks Scots, 55l. 11s. 1⅓d. sterling in money. The average of these was 7¼ chalders, or 41l. 13s. 4d. sterling.

In 1633, 8, 19, the lowest stipend was raised to 800 merks Scots, or 44l. 8s. 10d. sterling, or, in victual, to eight chalders.

The lowest stipend then paid was actually found to be only about 25l. sterling, being little more than one half of the minimum fixed by statute above a century before; but the highest stipend had risen to 138l. 17s. 9d. 4-6ths. The average appears to have been 60l. 7s. over all Scotland.

Meat, wine, poultry, fish, ale and beer, cattle, shoes, furniture, and implements of husbandry, have risen in money price from one to five since the year 1750.

The price of *labour*, including the wages of household servants and tradesmen, as well as those of day labourers, has advanced from one to six, since the year 1750.

Land-rents have risen, betwixt the year 1750 and the present year, 1807, from one to seven and upwards, both in the corn and in the sheep districts.

Now, in what proportion has the price of *victual* advanced? A chalder in 1750 was worth 6l. 5s. 4d. sterling, in Berwickshire; and on the average of ten years preceding 1750, including the dear year 1740, the price of a chalder was about 6l. 10s. A chalder is now generally estimated at 16l. at an average of years. The advance is nearly from 1 to 2½; and this is only half of the advance in other necessaries, and not half the actual advance of labour, or of land. The rise in the real value of victual is therefore only apparent, when the price is estimated in money, and if the price be estimated in other necessaries, or in labour or land, it appears that victual has fallen in value to less than one half.

There is much less victual consumed by equal numbers of the people of Scotland at present, than there was in 1750; the quantities of meat, potatoes, and other vegetables, are very much increased; and the culture of grain is conducted in a style so much more perfect, that less seed is required, and the returns are more ample. These causes may have operated in preventing grain from rising in money price, as high in proportion as other necessaries of life, or as high as labour and land.

In the year 1801, the land rents of Scotland were computed and returned at 2,441,955l. sterling. Out of these rents, all the parish ministers who drew stipends out of the teinds of land, in number 894, were to be supported. The average land rents of each parish were 2731l.

The whole establishment, as a burden on land, may be stated in one view as follows, viz. a glebe of perhaps about six or seven acres, out of nearly 21,000, and the grass, where it is allowed; a stipend of about 9d. in the pound of the land rents; and buildings and communion charges, amounting to 4d. or 5d. more in the pound of these land rents.

The author proceeds to consider the various legislative provisions in favour of the clergy: some of which, particularly under Charles I., deserve especial notice: he thinks, that they have uniformly, *from unforeseen causes*, operated in favour of the landholder. Speaking of the taxes imposed on the Scottish clergy and on their claims of exemption he observes that

When the reformation took place, and the ample funds and possessions of the church were withheld from the ministers, it became necessary to exempt them from all taxations. This was done in the most solemn manner, by statute 1593, 100, which is corroborated by various other acts, and supported by the coronation oath. The clergy were actually exempted, for ages, from all taxations on their stipends, glebes, and manses. But at present, they pay the tax on their work and riding-horses, the taxes on hair-powder, male-servants, and dogs; and the tax on property, estimated by adding their stipends to the annual value of their manses and glebes, for

the amount of which they have to pay 10 *per cent.* Besides all these taxes, they are annually charged with the direct tax on every other sort of income which they may happen to possess; and the surveyors regularly serve them with a charge for the house and window taxes; but these are not actually raised. The amount of all these imposts, added to every other tax which the clergy in common with others have to pay indirectly, is very serious.

The clergy have never objected to pay any taxations, direct or indirect, which other classes of people are liable to pay, excepting those which affect their stipends, glebes, and manses: But, from all taxes on these, it is the settled opinion of many among them, and of various respectable characters not among the clergy, that they are constitutionally exempted; and that their claims of exemption are as strong as the law itself can render them.

The statute 1593, 166, is as follows, viz.—"Forasmeikle as sindry ministers quha hes been in lang possession of their stipends, be vertew of their assignations, are troubled be pensioners or tacksmen, quha hes tane in tack, gift, or pension, aither their haill stipends or ane great part thereof, and hes obtained ratification in parliament thereupon, Therefore, our Soveraign Lord, with advise of his estaites of this present parliament, ordains, that all ministers' stipends, in time coming, be free from all tacks, pensions, taxationes, or impositions quhatsomever,—notwithstanding of ony gift or disposition made in the contrair, to the effect that the ministers may bruik their stipends peaceably, in all time coming, without ony trouble, according to their assignations."

This statute is very clear, and very extensive. Its provisions have been by various commissioners construed in favour of the Scotish incumbents, but these opinions could not be carried into effect, without authority from the Lords of the Treasury, which never has been obtained. We find that there are other advantages taken by the landholders *in favour of themselves*, all acting against the temporal interests of the clergy: but these are of a more local nature, than those which we have selected.

The Stranger's East-Indian Guide to the Hindoostanee; or grand popular Language of India (improperly called Moors). By J. B. Gilchrist, Esq. L. L. D. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 190. Price 9s. Black and Co. London, 1808.

We consider this as a useful book, and are glad to see a second edition of it. Nothing need be said to enforce the importance of possessing the prevailing language of a country, to those who are about to be settled in that country. All who have visited foreign parts, know by experience, the perplexities to which they are subjected if ignorant of the current medium of communicating information and sentiment. This is but temporary; and is comparatively of little moment, as it is of short duration. Where a prolonged residence is intended, the acquisition of the language becomes of the first necessity, and though we abate somewhat from the expectations of Mr. G. of being able to teach the true pronunciation of words, or the true sounds of letters when formed into syllables, by means of books, apart from vocal instruction, yet we freely acknowledge that they prepare the mind of the student, dispose him to think less of difficulties, and offer advantages which are very well worth the trivial expense at which they may be procured. The present volume comes under this description of works, and contains, as examples, several interesting specimens of Oriental composition, which are amusing as well as useful.

A Topographical Dictionary of the United Kingdom; compiled from Parliamentary, and other authentic Documents and Authorities; containing Geographical, Topographical, and Statistical Accounts of every District, Object, and Place in England, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, and the various small Islands dependant on the British Empire. Accompanied by forty-six Maps, drawn purposely for this Work, on an original Plan. By Benjamin Pitts Capper, Esq.—Octavo, Price 25s. Phillips, 1808.

This volume contains a very great quantity of information, extremely useful if it be correct. We have neither leisure nor inclination to examine it thoroughly, but are satisfied by a cursory inspection, only, and reference to places with which we are acquainted, that the author has had recourse to good materials, and has spent much time and labour on his work. On many places, he quotes the authors of whose performance he has availed himself; we should not have thought the worse of him had he done this more frequently. A kind of index to the Topographical works in our libraries, might have been formed by such means; and the public would have been laid under additional obligations.

On Hydrophobia, its Prevention and Cure; with a Description of the different Stages of Canine Madness; illustrated with Cases. By Benjamin Mosely, M. D. Physician to Chelsea Hospital. pp. 34. Price 1s. Longman, and Co. London, 1807.

THIS is a clear, distinct, and concise account of the disease produced by the bite of a mad dog: introduced by some excellent practical remarks, and many pertinent observations, on the ineffectual practice of the ancients, and the causes which still operate to prevent this disorder from being sufficiently understood, or properly treated.

It does not appear satisfactorily to the learned (says the author), that any writer on this malady ever saw its whole train of evils. The ancients, like the moderns, describe, and prescribe, in their way; but not one among them even pretends to have seen Hydrophobia with rabies in all its stages.

Some of the moderns assert, they have witnessed the dreadful scene; but their own evidence is against them. Boerhaave is bad; Mead worse; and the rest, with very few exceptions, are contemptible.

Severe as is the above reflection, candour compels us to acknowledge the justice of it: he also remarks:

That since the separation of physic and surgery into distinct professions, every physician, and every surgeon, are [is] not qualified to undertake complicated cases,—such as wounds from rabid and venomous animals, with their consequent diseases.

A surgeon now, is supposed to know as little of physic as possible; and a physician is supposed to understand about as much surgery. What then must be the fate of a patient in the hands of either, who requires the utmost aid of both?—p. 8.

There can be no doubt that divisions so strongly marked of a profession like that of physic, must be highly injurious to the community at large, by affording a sort of legitimate sanction to ignorance, and even empiricism: while it conduces to the establishment of a right of plunder, absolutely disgraceful to an enlightened age, and a civilized country.

We trust that the public, and particularly the faculty, and those among them whose peculiar province it is, to guard their own order from disgrace, will duly appreciate these remarks, and adopt some remedy in time, for mischiefs obviously to be dreaded from the present state of physic; and the innumerable and increasing errors of medical education as it is now conducted.

The principal part of this publication is occupied by the narrative of two cases which have lately happened in Dr. M.'s practice. The first, a detail of symptoms, which took place eighteen weeks after the bite had been inflicted, and proceeded regularly till the death of the patient. The second, a history of the occurrence of Hydrophobia, twelve days after the bite; an account of its progress; and the removal of it, by the mode of treatment described. To these we beg leave to refer.

The exhibition of mercury has long formed a part of the practice recommended by those who have written on this disease. The method of exhibiting it undoubtedly constitutes the difference between the author's success, and the failure of others. In our humble view of the estimate of talents, the man who suggests a mode of operation, capable of producing complete success, though performed with the identical instruments which have been long used by others, is better entitled to public applause, than the inventor of new forms, who, affecting to despise the advantages of previous knowledge, would establish his character as a discoverer, at the expence of his reputation as a man of learning, of experience, and of judgment.

Dr. Moseley concludes his pamphlet with the following remarks:

The symptoms arising in the system from the bite of a mad dog, antecedent to Hydrophobia, are of that description called nervous; consequently various, in different constitutions.

Not apprised of this, writers have erroneously considered some peculiar symptoms, as universal characteristics of the disease. The same error has been committed in the convulsed state.

Canine madness seems to be a mixture, or rather a succession of hysterical and tetanic affections.

Apprehension, lowness of spirits, and fright, at first; in which state, the nervous influence is only concerned; and the voluntary and involuntary functions remain undisturbed. To this condition succeeds spasm in the throat,—the region besieged by all passions combined with fear or dread. Then universal muscular convulsion makes a horrid attack, and subverts the whole order of nature. p. 34.

A Letter, on the Nature, Extent, and Management, of Poor Rates in Scotland: with a Review of the Controversy respecting the Abolition of Poor Laws. 8vo. pp. 38. price 1s. 6d. Park, Edinburgh. Harding, St. James's Street, London, 1807.

CIRCUMSTANCES, arising from the state of the poor in England, have greatly augmented our desire for better acquaintance with the internal economy of the provision for the same class of inhabitants among our brethren in the north. We therefore took up this pamphlet with considerable expectations. It contains *some* information, but not equal to our wishes: and we perceive that the writer considers himself as merely a precursor in a way which others are to follow with more advantage. He desires to receive communications on the subject; and means to write again,—we hope, to our greater satisfaction. The following statements deserve attention.

I have made diligent enquiry both into the law and the practice concerning legal assessments for the poor, and have for many years taken my full share in the management of them; there is much that remains confused and unfixed upon this department of public police.

In this part of the country where I live, the number of beggars, since the late years of scarcity, has been gradually increasing; and this year they seem to exceed all the preceding.

There is one plan of charity which has always been thought voluntary, the advantages of which have been long and justly admitted; and I believe it is the only one except common begging, on which the poor can rely. This system consists in collecting at the doors of every church, and upon every Sabbath, for the support of the poor. This has been the universal practice in Scotland since the reformation; and were all the inhabitants of every parish to attend public worship regularly, and were such of the rich as have estates in each parish, but do not reside upon them, to contribute voluntarily in the proportion of the public collections, there are very few parishes in which the poor would not be amply supplied. Nay, there are parishes in my neighbourhood, and I believe there are many others within Scotland, where the inhabitants having all adhered to the established church, and all the heritors contributing voluntarily in their proportion, there is not only a sufficiency for the present necessities of the poor, but frequently a stock to a considerable amount accumulated from this source.

The fund is supplied by such frequent, regular, and apparently trifling, individual contributions, that human selfishness is scarcely ever awakened. Habit closes the grudging eye of avarice; and vanity, in the presence of the church where there are so many spectators to note a close-fisted Christian, comes forward as a friendly auxiliary to virtue.

A family of Christians who regularly observe public worship, and who can easily spare half a crown every Sunday, bestow this sum cheerfully, and never think more of it; but the father of another family, of the same wealth, who have all deserted the church, if called upon for the same sum at the end of the year, amounting to six pounds ten shillings, will too probably be inclined to suspect the kirk-session or church-wardens and overseers of feasting upon the money, or furnishing dainties to the poor.

Many of the upper ranks began a considerable time ago to attend public worship only, and regularly, in the forenoon; thus teaching the people that one half of religion was quite enough for them. The children of those who retained one half of the religion of the country, soon found that the whole was inexpedient. The Scotch ministers continued in the same habits of intercourse with their equals and superiors under this open charge, as if they had been the most exemplary Christians. The common people took the alarm, suspected such ministers of insincerity or hypocrisy, lost all confidence in their ministration, and soon withdrew from the established church, to provide places of worship and ministers for themselves.

The effect of this desertion upon the parish fund of charity became quite obvious to all.

The writer vehemently opposes Mr. Malthus. It is fit that the present generation should know what severities their forefathers allotted to mendicants.

By Stat. 1. Edw. VI. It is enacted, "That if any person shall be found idle for the space of three days, he may be seized upon as a slave, and having been branded in the breast with a red hot iron with the letter S, he shall be fed upon bread and water, and compelled to work for the person so seizing him, however vile the work may be, by beating, chaining, or otherwise. Further, that if he absent himself from his said master for the space of 14 days, he shall be branded on the forehead, and adjudged a slave for ever." There were the same cruel enactments in Scotland.

Posthumous Essays, by Mr. Abraham Booth. To which is annexed, his Confession of Faith, delivered at his Ordination in Goodman's Fields, February 16, 1769. London, Button, 1808. Crown 8vo. pp. 105. Price 2s. 6d.

ABRAHAM BOOTH was a truly *good* man; and though we may differ from him in some things, and might have chosen to express some of the sentiments in which we agree with him in other terms than he has chosen, yet we have a satisfaction in doing justice to his character for piety and usefulness. He was a minister in the Anabaptist interest; not originally brought up for the ministry, we believe, but *sent out*, as the custom is among that persuasion. By diligence he attained to considerable proficiency in his studies, and to great respectability. His sentiments coincide with those usually called Evangelical: for that very reason we shall select a passage, which shews with what caution he guarded against their misapplication.

Some professors of evangelical truth place vital religion so much in transient illuminations and impressions, especially if they occur in such or such a particular order, and so little in the habitual temper and spirit of which persons are; that they greatly deform the religion of Jesus, and represent Christianity in a very different light from that in which it is exhibited by the inspired writers. The New Testament knows nothing of real Christians, that are habitually of a selfish, envious, and contentious temper. Scarcely any character can be invented, the leading ideas in which are more heterogeneous, discordant, and unsociable, than those of a covetous, hard-hearted, high-spirited, or spiteful, true Christian. The character of professors must be appreciated by *rules*; not rules diluted to suit *professors*: otherwise we shall make the word of God of no effect. Allowances, indeed, must be made for natural tempers; but not such allowances as would imply, that persons who, in their native dispositions, were wolves and serpents, are now real believers, though there be no evidence of a great and remarkable alteration having taken place in "the spirit of their minds." For the alteration produced by real conversion, is commonly the most evident with reference to that very evil, on account of which the convert was previously the most notorious. Nor is divine grace less adapted to subdue such evil tempers, than it is to deliver from profligate sensuality.

The subjects of these Essays are—On the Love of God to his chosen People—On a Conduct and Character formed under the Influence of Evangelical Truth—Evidences of Faith in Christ—Mr. B.'s Confession of Faith.

Designs for Villas and other Rural Buildings, by Edmund Aikin, with an Introductory Essay, containing Remarks on the prevailing Defects of Modern Architecture, and an Investigation of the Style best adapted for the Dwellings of the present Times. 4to. Plates 31. pp. 23. Price 15s. Taylor. London. 1808.

EVERY English gentleman has an unquestionable right, of which, we trust, no earthly power will ever deprive him, of building his house, and ornamenting his grounds with detached edifices, to his own mind, and according to his own convenience. The climate of our country does not allow us to adopt the structures of Egypt or Greece, of India or of Italy, without reserve: and if our public, and more important, or national, edifices, could be so characterized, yet those lesser buildings, which fashion calls Villas and common language calls Houses or *Seats*, *must* be excused from such compliance. We, therefore, should have thought the introduction to this volume better placed almost any where than before a collection of English *rural* buildings, since it professes to adopt Grecian principles, and the author speaks of himself as a "humble disciple, too happy, if he has caught any spark of that celestial fire which animated the mighty masters of antiquity." By the bye, we doubt whether in adopting the Gallicism "*too happy*," Mr. A. has not offended against the mighty masters of antiquity, in respect to their taste in language; and we are sure, that the modern English stands in no need of this barbarous pleonasm.

We have heretofore expressed our gratification in viewing the labours of ingenious men, when called into exercise on subjects like those before us. Each furnishes a something new, diversified or ingenious, something which suits some situation, or answers some purpose, though, perhaps, not always that for which the author designed it.

Mr. A. has travelled out of the common road in search of novelty; and those

who desire to distinguish themselves by differing from their neighbours, will do well to consult his book. They will here find Hindoostanee, Turkish, &c. examples, which shew the author to be no slave to the principles of the ancients. In general, the elevations may be remarked on, as having been *evidently* composed since the last Act of Parliament for laying taxes on window lights: and therefore comprising as few windows as possible, in proportion to a great extent of wall. This economy is commendable: yet we are mortified to see the arts cramped by the necessities of the times and obliged to submit their compositions to the cold calculations of tasteless Chancellors of the Exchequer.

The Christian Monitor for the Last Days; or, a Caution to the professedly Religious, against the Corruptions of the Latter Times, in Doctrine, Discipline, and Morals. By John Owen, M. A. late Fellow of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge; and Curate of Fulham. Second Edition, corrected. Crown 8vo. pp. 360. Hatchard, London. 1808.

The following little work, of which, in accommodation to repeated demands, a new edition is now given, was written at a time when the religious and political horizon of Great Britain was enveloped in dark and menacing clouds. The author thought he perceived a marked and growing declension from the faith, the discipline, and the morality of the gospel; and he could not but consider such declension as at once accounting for the political disorders which prevailed among us, and foreboding some more general and fatal visitation. In this persuasion he was not singular. Writers of distinguished eminence explicitly avowed the same sentiments; and among them may be enumerated not only many able advocates both of the clergy and laity, but some of the most illustrious ornaments of the Episcopal Bench. [See the charges of Bishops Porteus, Barrington, Prettyman, and Horsley.] In concurrence with these real friends to the best interests of their country, though at too humble a distance to deserve a place among them, the author of the following pages endeavoured to do his part towards rousing the dormant spirit of vital Christianity, and bringing back the members of Christ's holy Catholic church to their first principles and their first works. It pleased God to sanctify the common efforts; and to redeem the nation in a great measure from that religious, moral, and political apostacy, towards which the Deceiver was rapidly leading it. In such happy effects all must rejoice, whoever may have been, under God, the instruments of accomplishing them.

In revising this work after so long an interval, the author was affected with lively satisfaction, at the degree in which the portrait which he had drawn of the times at the date of this publication, had lost its resemblance to the original. The dry and ethical manner of preaching which was gaining fast upon us, has been in a great measure reasoned down by the strenuous exertions of our most eminent prelates; and a large proportion of our parochial congregations are now instructed with zeal, assiduity, and canonical correctness, in the faith once delivered to the saints.

In preparing this impression for the press, the author has introduced such corrections and improvements, as a revision of the text, in the midst of many and pressing occupations, suggested to his mind. He has left the strictures upon temporary topics as they were; and trusts that the reader will have respect to the date at which they were written, in order to form his judgment of their propriety. Many remarks will be found in the course of the volume, which by the vicissitude of events, or the melioration of public sentiment, have lost their application; but these could not have been struck out without changing altogether the character of the work.

Upon the whole, the author commends this second impression to that blessing which he has reason to believe accompanied the first. He wishes to inculcate no peculiarities but such as are contained in the doctrine that is according unto Godliness: and he desires no reputation but such as will be ratified in that great day when every man shall receive according as his work shall have been.

This appears to us to be a just character of the present edition of this work. The subjects treated on are—the Scripture account of the *last days*; Mr. O. applies this to the present period; on the propriety of which application we give no opinion. He proceeds to vindicate the faith due to Revelation, its state, the necessity of a correct knowledge of it—its importance—its doctrines—its profession—and duties: as—social worship—the observance of the sabbath day—on which we wonder that Mr. O. has omitted the fact, that other nations besides the Jews observed stated times of worship, at short periods; that some observed the *seventh* day, and that there are witnesses *independent* of the Hebrews; and which shew that the Sabbath was not restricted to that people.

An accident at the press, undiscovered till the sheet was worked off, has mutilated the article in which Mr. Daniel's South African animals is reviewed, by depriving it of the following page. In justice to that magnificent work, to the writer who favoured us with the article, and to the public, we have inserted the continuation here; it should have followed line 31, in p. 32. which line stands thus:

occupied in building jar-granaries at home.

After these cursory remarks on our South African—brethren, though distant from us by climate, and very distinct in colour, and manners, we can but glance at the novelties in natural history presented in this work.

Among those Animals of which we had some previous knowledge, and even figures, though of mod-rate merit, we must reckoir the Hippopotamos, and the double horned African Rhinoceros: the Gnou also, and some of the Antelopes; but they never have been so well and so complete'y set before the eye, as by Mr. D. He has left us nothing-to-desire, in point of representation. He has added the Quakka, allied to the horse, but striped brown-red and white, with a standing up mane; the Pallah, of the Antelope kind, the Klip Springer, another of the same class: The Tackhaitse, another, also, unknown to the colonists; and only met with near Leetakoo: The African hog, first described by Vosmaer, but his figure differs considerably in the form of the snout from this of Mr. D. All these are entirely new species. If it were possible to domesticate the Quakka, yet preserve to that animal its present appearance and properties,—what a noble appearance would a set of four or six of them, harnessed to a chariot, make in our gay metropolis! We recommend the hint to our dashing Jehus; and warn them of the strict genealogy, which it is their duty to keep, of its true blood and unmixed descent.

Mr. D. has added by way of incidental illustration, in his plate of the Pallah, that singular association of birds' nests, which are placed as close together as houses in London; and cover a large tree as a thatch does a cottage. We believe, Vaillant was the first who described these birds, with any degree of correctness, but Mr. D's figure is infinitely more satisfactory. The bird is small, and of the finch kind. The aggregate of these nests sometimes includes a space of twelve to twenty feet wide; the roof is common to all the nests. They are made of a dry, harsh, rigid grass. The openings into the nests are on the under sides, and the passage into them is so contrived as not to be without its difficulty, which answers the purpose of protecting the eggs and young, in the nest, from the attacks of birds of prey, of snakes and other reptiles.

But perhaps, after all, the animal of the most singular character and manners, in South African natural history, is—— the Dutch boor, at the extremity of the Cape Colony. Human in figure, yet little humanised in manners. Having no motive for exertion of body or mind, with few objects of thought around him, and still fewer of solicitude, without emulation, though not without passion, without sentiment, though not without instinct, he passes away his time rather than lives; and, except when on a hunting party, which he never declines, or on his annual expedition to the Cape, his sloth and his idleness equal those of his Hottentots: he is indeed better clad, and sometimes too he is better fed, yet are his real enjoyments little, if at all, above the par of those on whom he looks down, and whom he ranks below him; whom indeed he will scarcely allow to be men, and most certainly not men like himself.

Mr. D. has favoured us with views of several of the houses of Dutch farmers or boors in the Colony: they are usually at great distances from each other; for each farm is allowed by government to be *three miles* in extent: It is ordinarily double this allowance in reality, so that the population being widely spread, and no towns affording the inhabitants opportunities of association, they contract the most uncouth manners, and entertain the grossest conceptions of the duties of man in society, and of his social and civil interests. It is not from Mr. D. that we gather this character, though his delineations tend to confirm it. He has contented himself with representing what he saw, and we take our leave of his work, by describing it, as truly magnificent and interesting, and acknowledging the pleasure and profit it has afforded us.

LITERARY PROSPECTIVE.

On the first of May next will be published, a new monthly magazine, entirely devoted to the service of the fine arts, which will be called, "Annals of Art, or the London Academical Journal." To contain usually a series of original essays, in the manner of the "Artist"—a collectanea of every translation worthy of record—transactions of native and foreign societies connected with art—works in hand, and other news of the world of art—descriptions of noble collections—a candid review of publications on art, exhibitions, &c.

A complete collection of the Works of Dryden, in 18 volumes 8vo. will be soon published, with notes, illustrations, &c. by Mr. Walter Scott.

The Right Hon. C. J. Fox's long talked of History of the Reign of James II. &c. will also soon appear.

Mr. Octavius Gilchrist, has been for some time occupied in collecting and arranging materials for a new edition of the old plays, on the foundation originally laid by Dodsley.

Mr. John Brown, of Kingston, Surrey, will shortly publish a small work on the education of youth.

The twentieth number (which completes the work) of Cary's General Atlas, imperial sheet, will soon appear. It will contain maps of England, Canada, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland; price 9s. fully coloured, 7s. bd. outlined. The proprietor of this work announces, that he is reducing it to a large quarto size, and many of the plates are already engraved. It will be published in numbers.

The Rev. Mr. Williams, of Halifax, has in the press a short and familiar Introduction to Geography.

Mr. Dewar, of Edinburgh, has just completed Essays Historical and Critical, on some Parts of the History of Scotland, and more particularly of the Highlands, which he proposes shortly to put to press.

The Asiatic Annual Register for 1806 will speedily appear.

A work of Mr. Jeremy Bentham's, which hitherto has been inaccessible but to a very few persons, is about to be made public. Its object is a Scotch reform considered with reference to the plan, proposed in the late parliament, for the regulation of the courts, and the administration of justice in Scotland; with illustrations from English Authorities, in the course of which, divers imperfections, abuses, and corruptions, in the administration of justice, with their causes, will now, for the first time, be brought to light. To this Mr. Bentham has added, in the form of tables, a view of the principal causes of complication and delay, and thence of vexation and expence, that have taken their rise under the technical or fee-gathering system of proceedure, in which judges have been observed to pay themselves in whole or in part, by fees.

Miss Byron has just completed a work of the novel kind, entitled The Englishwoman.

Mr. J.N. Brewer, author of The Winter's Tale, has just ready for the press, in four volumes, Secrets made public, which abounds with satirical anecdotes of several well known families of a fashionable village in the vicinity of London.

A new romance, under the title of the Ring and the Well, or the Grecian Princess, is in the press, and will be published early in the present month.

Mr. Robinson, late of Seaford, will shortly publish two volumes of Poems, on moral and patriotic subjects.

Mr. Tart, of Liverpool, has a volume of Poems, consisting of odes, sonnets, &c. ready for the press.

Mrs. Sewell is preparing a third volume of Poems and Essays, to be published by subscription.

The Fisher's Boy, a poetical work, on the plan of the Farmer's Boy, is in the press.

Mr. Raymond will shortly publish The Passions, written by William Collins, embellished with sixteen superb engravings, by Anthony Cardon, from designs by Robert Ker Porter; with notes and a comparative review, by the editor of the Life of Collins, as written by Mr. Langhorne and Dr. Johnson. The notes contain also biographical remarks and anecdotes of the poet, which have escaped the notice of those biographers.

Shortly will be published in 1 vol. 8vo. with engravings, Hints on the Economy of feeding Stock, and bettering the Condition of the Poor. By J. C. Curwen, Esq. M. P. Wakington, Cumberland.

A gentleman of Edinburgh is about to publish an original work on Political Economy, containing an inquiry into the extent and stability of national resources. The object of the publication is much the same as that of the popular publication of Mr. Spence, to prove that the decay of commerce is not attended with such injurious consequences as have generally been supposed.

The Rev. Robert Adams, of Edinburgh, will shortly send to the press a work on which he has long been engaged, and which is designed to comprise a View of the Religions of the World, comprehending Paganism, Judaism, Mahometanism, and Christianity; with a more detailed account of the various sects and parties into which any of them, and Christianity more especially, may have been divided. The work will form two volumes in octavo.

The Rev. Thomas Le Mesurier will shortly

publish a volume of Bampton Lectures, on the sin and ill consequence of schism, including a short sketch of English Ecclesiastical History from the Reformation, with a view of distinguishing the case of the separation which took place between the several Protestant churches and the church of Rome from that of the dissenters in this country.

A new edition of Robinson's Scripture Characters, in 4 vols. is in the press, and will speedily be published.

The Rev. George Cook, Laurencekirk, (N. B.) has nearly ready for publication, an illustration of the general evidence establishing the reality of Christ's resurrection.

Soon will appear, a Diamond Concordance to the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament. By the Rev. John Brown, of Haddington. This little work is intended to bind with small pocket bibles; it has been between two and three years in the press. The price will be 4s. in boards.

The Rev. Mr. Hill, of Homerton, is preparing for the press, Animadversions on the Rev. W. Parry's "Strictures on the Origin of Moral Evil, &c." with an Appendix, containing strictures on the Rev. W. Bennet's "Remarks on a recent Hypothesis on the Origin of Moral Evil. &c."

The Rev. T. F. Dibdin, is about to publish a new variorum edition of Sir Thomas More's Utopia. The text is from the first English edition of 1551; a book of considerable rarity, and scarcely known to bibliographers and lexicographers. Beneath the text will be copious notes, and various readings from the Latin, French, and English editions, including the whole of Dr. Warner's. The Utopia will be preceded by a Biographical and Literary Introduction; comprehending, among other subjects, a complete *Catalogue Raisonné* of the various editions of the Utopia hitherto published. The work will be ornamented with some fac-simile wood cuts.

A work, entitled The Private History of the Court of England, will soon appear.

The Annual Review for 1807 will appear in a short time.

Mr. W. Bentham, principal Herald of Ireland, proposes to republish Lodge's Peerage of Ireland with some very valuable additions, founded on a variety of documents in his possession.

Mr. Francis Bailey has in the press an Analytical Treatise on the Doctrine of Interest and Annuities, which will contain several new and useful tables on the subject, together with their various applications to different questions in finance.

M. T. Lathom has a novel nearly ready for the press, in four volumes, entitled London, or the Portraiture of the Pen.

Mr. Robert Buchanan is engaged on a work upon the subject of the teeth of wheels.

Mr. L. Cohen has in the press, a splendid edition of a controversial work, entitled "Sacred Truths, addressed to the Children of Israel, residing in the British Empire, and containing strictures on the "New Sanhedrin, and causes and consequences of the French Emperor's conduct towards the Jews, &c. written by W. Hamilton Reid," tending to shew that the Jews can gain nothing by altering their present belief, proving the local restoration to the land of promise, and demonstrating that Buonaparté is not the man, the promised Messiah."

Mr. Styles is writing an Apology for Evangelical Preaching, containing animadversions on the "Hints" of a Barrister, the Edinburgh Review, and other recent publications, of which the first part will appear very shortly.

CORRESPONDENCE WITH THE REVIEW DEPARTMENT.

Reply of E. R. to the Reviewer of Mr. Carpenter's Pamphlet.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

SIR,——The *Reviewer* of *Mr. Carpenter's* Pamphlet (see pp. 988, 1213), seems to have mistaken the drift of my argument on the question of the union of the offices of clergyman and magistrate in one individual. I took up the matter on the ground stated by the ingenious *Reviewer* himself, viz: the alleged *inconsistency* of the office of magistrate, with the *sacred* character of clergyman; and I endeavoured to shew, that inasmuch as the DEITY, *Prophets* and *Priests*, under *the law*, had exercised the judicial function; and the *Christian Church* had judicial powers vested in it; there can be nothing in the discharge of a magistrate's duty, which can possibly desecrate the *sacred character* of a clergyman.

That the DEITY *acted* as supreme magistrate, from the era of the legation of *Moses* to the elevation of *Saul* to the Jewish throne, seems to me nothing less than a clear fact. This is implied in the very term *Theocracy*; and I never heard it controverted. I am sure I need not point out to the *Reviewer* the numerous cases where *Moses*, the immediate organ of the DEITY, was obliged to consult his great Lord and Master. The DEITY went before his people on their way from *Egypt* to the promised land, wrought miracles in their behalf, and gave them laws to distinguish them from the heathen, and to serve as tests of their fidelity. It is true that he commonly made known his will by "the intervention of

an agent;" but this made him not the less *the King of Israel*. However, when the law was delivered from *Sinai*, the *immediate* presence of the DEITY was manifested by the lightnings and thunderings which announced it. The people witnessed this awful display of the *Divine Majesty*; they saw the lightnings, they heard the thunderings; the terrors of this scene were not merely *related* to them. Here the *King of Israel* acted in the capacity of a LAW-GIVER:—he acted as an AVENGER, "without the intervention of an agent," when "the earth opened, and swallowed up *Dathan*, and covered the congregation of *Abiram*;" and when there went out fire from the LORD, and devoured *Nadab* and *Abihu*.—In the affair of the daughters of *Zelophehad* (Numb. 27), we find him in the exercise of CIVIL JURISDICTION. *Moses* could not determine the cause, but he brought it immediately before THE LORD.

You will observe, Sir, that I am only bound to shew that the exercise of a magistrate's duties, cannot desecrate the clerical character; but as the *Reviewer* seems to wish me to shew specifically the delegation of civil authority to the priesthood (not to mention the case of *Eli* the High-Priest, who *judged* Israel forty years"—(1. Sam. 4, 18), I will produce a passage, which, according to my conception of it, decides the question; for I think it unequivocally conveys to the *priests* the same powers which were conferred on the *judges*. In this enactment of the Divine Law, we have an instance nearly, if not exactly, resembling an appeal to our own supreme court of judicature. "If (8. Deut. 17.) there arise a matter too hard for thee in judgment between blood and blood, between plea and plea, and between stroke and stroke, being matters of controversy within thy gates: then thou shalt arise, and get thee up into the place which the LORD thy GOD shall chuse, and thou shalt come unto the *Priests*, the Levites, *and* unto the *judge* that shall be in those days, and inquire: and they shall shew thee the sentence of judgment."—This may make people think with somewhat less horror upon shedding blood by judicial authority. Here we see matters in controversy of a *capital* nature, were referred to the priesthood as well as to the civil judges. If the DEITY has been pleased to say, "whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed:"—shall it be impiety to cause this great statute to be executed?—I know, and reverence, the delicacy which influences the *bishops* in questions of life and death: but this delicacy of feeling, cannot do away the *right* which the Divine Law does not withhold, and which the constitution of their country confides to them.

The case of *Abp. Abbott* is here perfectly irrelevant. The unhappy accident from a random shot in a park, can have little weight in determining the lawfulness of a spiritual person's exercising the office of a Justice of the Peace.—I think it is the duty of all men to give efficacy to the laws of their country; and as *Lord Mansfield* once well observed, that a soldier was not excluded from helping to quell a riot, nor absolved from the duties of civil life, so I still continue to think, that a clergyman may, without impairing the sanctity of his profession, act as a magistrate. But if, after all, the shedding of blood judicially be so heinous a crime, the *Reviewer* will recollect, that *Justices of the Peace are never called upon to pronounce sentence of death.*

With regard to my quotation,—"tell it to the Church;"—our SAVIOUR spake these words; and I think they give jurisdiction to spiritual persons in matters of trespass ("If thy brother trespass against thee"), that is, in matters of civil offence; at least, of this I am sure, that the *Reviewer* will not maintain that they take it away. As to Bp. *Stillingfleet*, we all know the character of his *Irenicum*; that it is a book written to serve a purpose; and it may be safely permitted to stand unopened upon the same shelf with *Bp. Taylor's Liberty of Prophecying*; two books, which perfectly astonished me when I read them. *Whitby* merely argues against the alleged infallibility of general councils, which the papists would draw from this passage, and says it means, tell thy grievance to the "Church, or particular community of which thou art a member;" it refers therefore to the *Christian* Church; and this *Clarke* admits in his paraphrase. *Beza* and *Baxter* contend against *the Power of the Keys*, which the Romanists claim from this passage and the context; but neither of them deny that the Christian Church has judicial authority. However, if I am to give a clear instance where the magistrate's sword has been wielded by the hand of a priest cutting off, by summary jurisdiction, offenders, I will adduce that of *Ananias* and *Sapphira*, who, in the presence of the Apostles, were smitten with death, by *St. Peter*, for the fraud they committed, and the lie with which they endeavoured to support it.

I take in good part the *argumentum ad verecundiam*, which the *Reviewer* uses; but I beg once more to state, that the whole I have undertaken to prove is simply this:—that the character of magistrate, degrades not that of clergyman, when they are united in one person.

I am, Sir, yours, &c.

March 8, 1808. E. R.

PROPOSITÆ PHILANTHROPICÆ.

——— Homo sum,
Humanum nihil a me alienum puto.

FRIENDLY FEMALE SOCIETY,

Instituted Jan. 20, 1802, patronised by their royal highnesses the Princess of Wales, the Duchess of York, and the Duchess of Gloucester.

Among the various objects of Christian sympathy and beneficence which present themselves, there is one class that seems peculiarly entitled to the humane notice of the female heart; namely, poor aged women of good character. Some of them are widows, destitute of a husband's industry, a husband's counsel, a husband's sympathy. There are others who have been reduced from ease and competence, by what are called the accidents of life, to a state of dependence and want. Many also, who have spent their days and their strength in servitude, have outlived their capacity to work, without having been able to lay up a suitable provision for the winter of life. Of such indigent and virtuous persons there are many, who, through modesty on their part, and continued neglect on the part of the world, have been driven to garrets, and extreme poverty. A consideration of their various distresses, has induced a few individuals of that sex to attempt the establishment of an institution for their relief, under the denomination of THE FRIENDLY FEMALE SOCIETY. It is presumed that the discreet interference of female kindness, in behalf of such deserving objects, especially in the time of sickness, is a measure not unbecoming the sex, and likely to be attended with peculiar benefit.

Every subscriber pays at least 10s. 6d. annually.

Any lady making a donation of ten guineas, is considered as a governess for life.

The committee consists of twelve ladies, three of whom have power to act, to be annually chosen at the general meeting in December; and the three persons who have given the least attendance during the year shall go out in every subsequent choice.

Poor, infirm and aged widows, and single women, of good character, who have known better days, are deemed proper objects of this charity, not having an income of eight shillings per week; but the committee, in cases of extreme distress, have a discretionary power.

No person is considered an object of this charity under the age of sixty.

No person who gains her livelihood by begging in the streets can be considered an object of the charity.

The relief granted is in money, clothing, fuel, medicine, or otherwise, as the case, in the judgment of the committee, may seem to require.

At a general meeting of the society, held January 25, 1804, twenty poor women, above the age of seventy, were taken on the books of the society, for a permanent relief; with an allowance of five guineas a year.

June 1, 1804, ten poor women, in addition to the twenty, were put upon the books for life.

Dec. 27, 1804, ten poor women, were added to the thirty.—June 6, 1806, ten poor women were added to the forty.

In the years 1802, 3, 4, 5, and 6, 2882 women were relieved, at an expence of about £3,300. The receipts at the close of the year 1806, amounted to £3705. 1s. 2d.

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HULL SOCIETY.

The following are abstracts from an Address to the Public from the Society established in the town and neighbourhood of Hull, for giving effect to the laws made for the Suppression of Vice and Immorality, when friendly admonition has failed of success.

"The Society will consider it as their duty to give information to the Magistrates of existing abuses, and to make the laws known to the lower orders of the community; they will endeavour to prevent the profanation of the Sabbath, by suppressing, as far as possible, those indecencies which are so apparent in our streets on the evening of that day; and by informing against such persons as expose their goods to public sale, or follow their ordinary callings. They will endeavour to check drunkenness in general, and profane swearing; to suppress disorderly houses of every description; and to put the laws in force against innkeepers and others, who encourage gaming, tippling, and dram-drinking in their houses.

"They will always prefer the prevention of crimes to the punishment of them. They will, in every case, in which it can properly be done, give warning to offenders, before they have recourse to a Magistrate, or to legal prosecution."

DIDASCALIA.

BEGONE DULL CARE.

Mr. Reynolds's reasons for writing it, with a faithful account of the difficulties he underwent in bringing it to maturity.

In our account of this comedy, [compare Panorama, vol. III. p. 1225] we mentioned, from the report of those *faithful* historians the newspapers, that we understood the managers of Covent Garden theatre had purchased the copyright; it now appears that they were

better judges, and thus the public is *favoured* with its publication. We extract the preface, which the author seems to have taken some pains with in order to prove that dramatic writers do not repose on beds of roses, and that critics are so unnatural as to endeavour to destroy what they live on.

. . . . .

Were there no dramatic writers, there would be no dramatic critics; and therefore is it not singular that the latter, living by the former, should be so frequently endeavouring to destroy them? Not at all—for could critics live if they did not make war against authors? Would a Review, or a Newspaper, that praised *every body*, be read by *any body*? Certainly not. And consequently, since the fame and the sale of critical publications depend entirely on their severity, let authors upbraid the *readers*, and not the *writers* of abusive articles.

To those READERS then—those *good-natured, liberal* READERS, who encourage and compel critics to be severe; I shall point out some of the difficulties attendant on dramatic composition.

First difficulty —— to *please* Yourself.
Second difficulty —— to *please* the Manager.
Third difficulty —— to *please* the Actors.
Fourth difficulty —— to *please*, the Licenser.
Fifth difficulty —— to *please* the Audience.
Sixth difficulty —— to *please* the Newspapers.

Add to all this, the actors must *please* not to be taken ill—the weather must *please* not to be unfavourable—the opposing theatre must *please* not to put up strong bills, and then!—what then? Why then—"*Please to pay the bearer four hundred pounds!*"

"Ay, but," say these *good-natured* READERS, "there are other advantages attached to a popular play!—the being noticed—followed, and admired!"—By whom?—by all those learned lords—fashionable ladies—wealthy citizens—penetrating lawyers and eminent literati, who some twelve years ago publicly declared that *one boy* was the genuine SHAKESPEARE, and who some three years ago as publicly declared that *another boy* was the genuine GARRICK—by all those who at different periods have equally idolized PITT and the CONSTITUTION—FOX and the REVOLUTION—SHERIDAN and the PHANTASMAGORIA—GIBBON and the LEARNED PIG—KOTZEBUE and MOTHER GOOSE!—And yet, spite of this weather-cock mania, authors have lived, and still live, who write for what they call FAME!—For my part I write for more substantial food:—*beef* and *mutton* are the objects of my ambition, and perhaps I would as soon gain them by *bad jokes*, as by good jokes; because, if by accident, I were to write one *sterling* comedy, I know to a certainty I could never write another, and therefore I should be *damned* by comparison.

But the constant cry is—"Why don't you "write a *sterling* comedy?—Why don't you "give us the good old *legitimate* drama—"such as flourished in the days of *Shake-*"*speare*—*Jonson*—*Vanburgh*—and *Con-*"*greve*?" Kind, liberal READERS! why only select, for comparison, the best authors, and their best plays? Why not bring into competition the ephemeral productions of *Etherege, Shadwell, Tuverner*, and *Durfey*?—and at the same time fairly consider the numerous advantages possessed by these ancient writers—*they* found a well-stocked *dramatic garden*.—Love—Jealousy—Avarice—Cowardice — Hypocrisy — Curiosity — were then flowers unhandled and unseen—these they culled—and left only weeds. *They* likewise were not checked in their satirical and original flights, by Act of Parliament—and if they had thought of dramatizing a *baby general*, or a *foppish clergyman*, they had no LICENSER to prevent them. *They* likewise were allowed the free use of that easy and inexhaustible source of creating mirth, called "*double entendre*."—*They* likewise, from the smallness of their theatres, had the gratification of knowing that their attempts at wit were heard even in the *galleries*—whilst ours, alas!—often stick in the *ceiling!*—and yet with all these superior advantages, they had their *good-natured* READERS—for Voltaire calls Shakespeare—"*Un grand Fumier.*"—Decker calls Jonson—"*Dull and vulgar.*"—Collier calls Vanburgh and Congreve—"*Unnatural and blasphemous*"—And had there been reviews in the days of Terence and Aristophanes, they would probably have been called "*The pity of the wise—the buffoons of the vulgar*—and (as the *ne plus ultra* of disgrace) *writers of* MODERN COMEDY!"

Barristers, physicians, and other professional characters, increase in reputation as they increase in age—and at the moment dotage empties their heads, credulity often fills their pockets—but when time impairs or dries up the vivid juices of an author's brain, can he exist on his former reputation?—No,—his past efforts recoil—and yet there are people who would still recommend the *Horatian* maxim of "*Nonum prematur in annum*"—by which maxim, in *thirty-six* years, a man might compose *four* classical dramas—and allowing two of these to be DAMNED—(and their being *classical*, don't in the least mend their chance) why he will have to cover himself, and perhaps a wife, who, "*Nonum parturit in mensem*"—not only LAUREL in abundance, but a clear terminable *income* of about TWENTY POUNDS!

That a *very large* majority of critical writers are always ready to take the good-natured side of the question, and to aid "*their fel-*"*low-labourer in the vineyard*," I have every reason to acknowledge, and I am happy—most happy, in this opportunity of con-

fessing that no author that ever did live or possibly ever will live, can be under greater obligations to them than I am.—But since the few may at last lead and convert the many, —and play-writing is my chief source of income, I trust there is no impropriety in my vindicating my vocation to the utmost of my power.—I beg it to be understood, that I bear no malice even to those critics who call *modern comedy, modern trash*; because if the sale of their publications depend on their severity, who knows but they are writing against their opinions, and are all the time secretly thinking me a *wonderfully fine dramatist!*—To the reviewers I *can* bear no malice, because when they state that my new comedy is worth nothing, they actually state the fact—for by that time *I have expended all its profits.* To the public at large, who have for more than twenty years bestowed on me such uniform and unceasing indulgence, what can I say for not better meriting that indulgence? Why briefly, in the words of many of my own sentimental heroes—

"The fault is in my HEAD, and not my HEART."

. . . . .

KAIS.—*Mr. Brandon's difficulties described.*

[Compare Panorama, Vol. III. p. 1222.]

Mr. Brandon has published his opera of Kais, with an introduction of several pages, which he calls *a* FEW *words by way of preface.* He returns his sincere thanks to the proprietors and manager for the splendor and advice bestowed on his piece and himself. "I thank Mr. Bannister (says he) for his "friendly assistance in *amending* a character "which I but *too sensibly* feel is unworthy "so FINE *a copyist of Nature.*"—"Mr. "Braham's uncommon powers and refined "taste were never more feelingly displayed "than in Kais, &c. shewing his eminent abi-"lities more forcibly than any other."*—Mr. Greenwood is praised for his genius, care and assiduity—Mr. Johnson for his taste and splendour in the dresses, &c. The author has been so liberal in compliments and thanks, that we once began to suspect the scene-shifters would come in for their share; for these *gentlemen* have been very useful to Kais! —But to be serious, to what a low ebb must theatrical *literature* be reduced, when writers burn their incense not only to the stage players, but the makers of dresses, or what our *dull* forefathers would have plainly called playhouse taylors!—Comp. Panorama, v. 4. p. 48.

However, Mr. Brandon, bestows no praise on the critics, some of whom he compares to "the filthy and obnoxious reptiles that cross "his path," &c." and talks "of an irresist-"able impulse to crush the diminutive ver-"min, &c." After relating some anecdotes and describing at great length a few of the periodical writers, he informs us that "their "disgusting and pedantic impudence cannot "break in upon his rest, or cast a gloom "around his fire-side." He likewise says, "that the opposition against him was system-"atic," and talks about the *mud* of one of the critics. "Men," says he, "fond of "literature should form a peaceful family; "but if some break out like ruffians unpro-"voked—and others come *to ask alms* with "a *bludgeon in their hands*, then it becomes "a man to stand up in his defence, and go "boldly to the war." We are afraid there is too much truth in this last remark of Mr. Brandon's, as we have heard instances where such practices have been resorted to for the purpose of intimidating authors, and actors, and actresses too, into a compliance with the most extravagant demands from unprincipled men disguising themselves under the name of newspaper writers. We hope all the men who are so threatened will follow Mr. B's advice—and as for the ladies, let them state such grievances to the Panorama, and the public shall know them.

The following is Mr. B's conclusion of his *few words*, which we extract as a contrast to the case of the author of *Begone dull Care.* It may not unaptly be entitled "Brandon "*versus* Reynolds."

"Critics! if you dislike my *labours*, go "and do better yourselves. To the public I "appeal—I WRITE NOT FOR PROFIT;—these "*labours* are my enjoyment! your attacks "do not disturb, as it were, even the *down* "*of my happy feelings*!—But *hungry* cri-"tics! as ye know the want of a crust and "a pair of breeches, have mercy on the "authors who are obliged to rack their fancy "for them."—

This preface often reminded us of the inimitable performance of Sir Fretful Plagiary by the late comedian Parsons. What he so well exhibited in *action*, Mr. B. seems to have done in *print*; treating the newspapers, by "*crust* and *breeches*," with exactly the same "*calm* indifference and *philosophic* contempt!"

. . . . .

Two new farces have been produced in the course of the month, one of which entitled *Ins and Outs*, (at Drury Lane theatre) was condemned, yet the managers had the modest assurance to present it to the public several times, till it died truly lingering. For the *information* of our readers we shall only relate that its wit lay in the pantomimic exhibition of one person breaking a piano-forte, and another creeping into a copper!!!—*Who Wins, or the Widow's Choice*, by Mr. Allingham, was brought forth at Covent-Garden; it is a lively sing-song farce, rather eccentric, and has been played with success; we have extracted from it *Latin and Leather*, p. 158.

* We wish Mr. Brandon could make this singer an actor; or, like his friend, a *fine copyist of nature!*

ON THE ITALIAN OPERA, — STATE OF THE DRAMA IN BRITAIN—HINTS FOR ERECTING AN ENGLISH GRAND NATIONAL OPERA.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

Sir, A bias, which there is no accounting for, often leads individuals to bestow their attention on subjects wherein they find an interest which engrosses them, while the public treats the matter with indifference. You must know, that, during many years of my life, I have been a zealous admirer of the Italian Opera; and have been well acquainted with the most eminent performers which have appeared on that stage: some of whom I have known on the continent, as well as in London. But the present state of this establishment has diminished my partiality for it, and the suspicion, which I see you have hinted at, and which had often crossed my mind, unheeded, that these foreigners may be *spies* employed by our enemies, has completely annihilated my former zeal. I have been led to reflect, that the immense expences incurred for this trivial gratification, amount to a vast sum, directed into a channel from whence the people of this country derive no benefit: nay, in fact, by which the nation is seriously injured.

The Opera is, by a kind of privilege, which it *ought* to deserve, the resort of our fashionable world; and the patronage which the upper ranks of life bestow on those who display their merit under favour of this institution, is compared by the world at large with that which the same patrons bestow on native artists. In proportion as the merit of these foreigners is overpaid, the merit of natives is underpaid. In proportion as the fame of these foreigners is circulated, and augmented, that of our compatriots droops neglected. Let it stand recorded, for the information of the world, that Madame Catalani complained of being inadequately rewarded for her warblings, (twice a week during six months) by the sum of SEVEN THOUSAND GUINEAS!*—Who can read this, without feeling the blush of indignation mantle his cheek?—This in the midst of a war, of which no mortal can foresee the end, and while the supports of our country are complaining of deficiencies and distress.—Now, what has been the effect of a scandalous acquiescence in this foreigner's unreasonable demand?—Why, a similar conduct on the part of other eminent singers. Mrs. Billington would not sing *three* airs during *seven* consecutive concerts in Argyle street, for less that *seven hundred guineas!* that is to say, *one hundred guineas* for three airs! the folly of society made it necessary to yield to the exorbitance.—Braham, who usually was complimented with *fifteen guineas* a night, demanded on this occasion, *fifty guineas!* It is no just cause of wonder that foreigners should pique themselves on getting from us every guinea they can: but the almost insanity which accedes to such terms deserves the severest reprehension.

Be it also remembered, that cupidity has the shamelessness to ask, and vanity to give, *three hundred and forty guineas* for a pit box, at the Opera. And had not the *happy* disputes of the managers occurred, every disposeable box would have let for *four hundred pounds*. The manager, it is true, only receives at present *two hundred and thirty guineas* of this sum, but it leads to his raising the price in proportion, when the leases of the boxes expire, which will be in a few years. While this aberration of mind continues, foreigners will continue to fatten on our folly, and will mercilessly plunder, whatever resources might be directed to those more honourable, though less favoured claimants, misfortune and wretchedness. I am not speaking against reasonable amusements adapted to the taste of the opulent and enlightened of the community; but surely, there is a boundary, beyond which amusements becomes profligacy, and indulgence degenerates into vice. Gratification may demand a moderate premium; but something worse than folly, characterizes the man who pays for trifles the price which might procure him substantial enjoyments.

But I suppose the supporters of the Italian Opera, after describing its excellence as superior to all other, and enlarging on the unrivalled merits it combines, will ask me, what I propose to substitute?—I answer by another question, Is it true, that the ENGLISH LANGUAGE does not afford combinations of words capable of equal cadence, melody, harmony, and expression, as any other language, whatever? I do not say, that every hap-hazard poet stumbles on such combinations; but I say that when I read some of the poems with which our language abounds, and some of our lighter pieces or songs, I cannot conceive of words, having any sense in them, more favourable to musical air; or superior in point of adaptation to musical expression, no offence to Metastasio himself. I say too, that not merely is the language of Italian songs, usually weakness and lullaby, and the sentiments childish, and even infantine, but the total want of interest in the general plot of operatical pieces, of vigour, or liveliness, or pathos, in the dialogue, and of discrimination in the characters, with what we call *merit* in a drama, is absolutely beneath contempt. The applause bestowed on works of such despicable pretensions, is a reflection on "a nation of philosophers," which has been the character given to the English. If re-

* Compare Panorama, Vol. III. p. 993.

citative *must* be had in an opera, I believe there are recitatives in some of our oratorios which demonstrate the susceptibility of our language for this ornament. But the pleasure arising to the ear from the finest recitative that ever was composed, never can compensate to the mind for the absence of meaning, and vigour, or for the tedium of insipidity and inanity. I would ask, also, whether the harshnesses of our language, admitting them to be ungraceful, would not stand a better chance of being corrected, by the efforts of poesy and music, than they now do? and whether we can be said to do justice to our language, while we neglect to submit it to scientific modulation; and reject it as utterly incompatible with harmony?

As for performers, I am firmly persuaded that if the leading merits of the English stage were fairly brought together, no foreign Opera could compare with it. Mrs. Billington, Mrs. Dickons, Braham, Bellamy, Bartlemon, and some others, if associated, would soon banish the recollection of all the foreign signoras and signors, that ever sung in the King's Theatre.

I should be glad to see valid reasons given, why a band composed of ENGLISH singers, like those I have named, and English performers, like some I might name, together with decorations by our own artists, and embellishments of appropriate kinds, including ballets, and other customary appendages, should not *excel*—I say *excel*, in point of effect, any thing yet presented to this nation. We have heard much, lately, of the languishing condition of the arts among us:—Have our countrymen's talents been fairly brought forward on the scale of which they are capable? Have the grander demands of art been confided to them? and have they been encouraged to exert their talents to the utmost?

In short, when I look around and survey the present state of public amusements, I wish for a spirit of patriotism, of common sense, and of effectual reform. I would recommend to the upper ranks among us, the cultivation of our national taste, abilities, and spirit. Let them patronize such institutions as tend to associate British merit, instead of pampering foreign insolence, and to diffuse elegance, *virtu*, and refinement, on manly principles, among our own people: that we may have no need to look abroad for excellence of any kind, but, as it is acknowledged even by our enemies that we are the first of nations in some things, that they may look to us, as examples for emulation, in whatever is deserving of public encouragement.

Almost every nation on the continent has its appropriate Opera; I mean musical performances, presenting, *in its own language* those pieces which the voice of the public has determined to be most worthy. By this means, the pleasure of the auditory is raised to the greatest height: the understanding accompanies the delights of the senses; and, unlike an English audience, those who enjoy these delights can give a reason for their enjoyment. But if it beasked,—whether Britain has any national Opera, or establishment holding the place of an Opera, in its own native energetic language, of a superior class, characterised by real merit, and exhibiting real excellencies—the answer must be—— NO! For if we inquire into the actual state of those theatres which call themselves *national*,—every voice which I hear on the subject, calls loudly for reform. Some of my acquaintance demand reform of morals and manners: they shudder at principles disseminated, and at company admitted. Some demand real merit in the pieces, and wonder what is become of that poetic fire which animated former dramatists. Perhaps, say they, the bards have now less property in their productions, and therefore are less careful in composing them. Some suppose the writers of dumb shew, when they are called on to furnish a dialogue, find that their *hand is out*, and that, having studied not living but mechanical actors, they find themselves at a loss to delineate general nature: while others charitably conclude that they are intent on offering to the public such sentiments, as their wooden and pantomimical actors, would utter were they really alive; and that in this they succeed *à merveille*.

You have observed, Sir, and my own knowledge confirms your observations, that the rational part of the public has been treated in a very supercilious manner by the directors of those entertainments. These *national* theatres have *poached* on the amusements of Sadler's Wells and the Circus: they have almost banished reasonable and judicious entertainment. Sentiments conveyed in elegant dialogue, and characters well chosen, well combined, well contrasted, and skilfully delineated,—where are they?—Not in our late dramatic abortions, most certainly. The pieces brought forward must be patronized by party, otherwise no attention is paid to them; and, what is worse, after having received decided marks of disapprobation from the audience, they are still maintained, as if they had been applauded.

I have intreated your attention, Sir, to these hints, in hopes that they may engage the notice of some of the patrons of taste and merit, in the higher circles, and thereby may lead to the establishment of a grand national Opera conducted upon at least as magnificent a scale as the boasted Opera at Paris, and in our own language too; and to a reformation which most assuredly is no where more wanted than in those departments which denominate themselves dramatical. I am yours, &c.

DRAMATICUS.

DISSERTATION ON THE POSSIBILITY OF INTRODUCING THE CULTURE OF COTTON IN FRANCE. *From the French.*

The culture of cotton is of the utmost importance, and undoubtedly deserves to fix the attention of government, as well as of those citizens who desire the prosperity of French agriculture, manufactures, and industry. We have enquired into that subject, and have written this chapter, with a view to enlighten the public opinion on this matter, and to direct the operations of those agriculturists who would wish to pursue this cultivation.

Experiments have been made, for these 40 years past, in France, Catalonia, the Milanese, Piedmont, Tuscany, Switzerland, Hungary, Austria, Saxony, &c. for the purpose of introducing the culture of cotton.

These trials, always adduced as proof that the culture of cotton may succeed on a large scale, and be profitable in such or such a country, are, in my opinion, inconclusive; they may be considered as indications, but not as proofs. A fact of such a nature cannot be ascertained in an incontrovertible manner, until after at least five years of successive harvest. In fact, it is necessary to know precisely the average and clear produce of a number of crops, to be able to judge whether a culture is more profitable, or less productive, than those already in practice. This has not been hitherto ascertained, in any of the abovementioned countries; those who made the trials having desisted from them after pronouncing it a sure and lucrative speculation. But, this is not the only proceeding that is required.

It is important, before this is undertaken on a large scale in France, to know exactly the facts which may encourage the zeal of French agriculturists, and offer them a just probability that their labours will be crowned with success; nor is it less important to show them the obstacles they have to surmount, and the chances they may run. Therefore, we shall inquire what are the most northern situations in which this culture is practised, in Asia and America, as well as in Europe.

Asia seems to be the native land of cotton; there also its cultivation is more general, and extends most to the north.

The Chinese, who use very little wool in their dress, consume a great quantity of silk and cotton. This last article is generally used by people of all ranks. Out of ten persons, in the lower classes, nine are dressed in cotton. The French missionaries in China say, that cotton is cultivated in every province of this vast empire, even in the more northerly. They affirm, also, that it is in high cultivation in the neighbourhood of *Pekin*, and in the province of *Pechely*, of which that town is the capital. The province of *Pechely* extends to lat. 41° N.; the cold is more severe there, during the winter, than in our most northern departments. "The rivers in the vicinity of Pekin," say the missionaries, "begin to freeze about the middle of November; the thaw commences at the end of March. During that time, whatever the weather may be, there is no danger in walking on the waters .....The lands in winter time are frozen, three or four feet deep, and when they are once frozen they remain so till the end of March. The spring is much later here than in our provinces which lie farthest from the south, and its operation in reanimating the country, is incomparably more slow."

This correct statement of the temperature in the province of *Pechely*, during the winter, shows, that the intensity and continuance of cold cannot be an obstacle in France to the culture of cotton. We have, even in our southernmost provinces, a signal advantage in that respect over that part of China, since our springs being much more early, the cotton may enjoy a more protracted vegetation, and consequently its fruits have more time to come to complete maturity.

This last advantage may be a compensation for the degree of heat which, in summer, is greatly higher, and more *fixed* at Pekin than in our southernmost provinces.

Our opinion is sanctioned, also, by that of the missionaries, who say on this subject, "None will ever think of planting the cotton-tree in France; it requires a much warmer climate, than that of our southern provinces. As to the cotton-plant, which is the most common in China, it is such a resource for some provinces, that they call it their substitute for wool and silk. Were even our French provinces in which it can grow, to reap only a sufficient quantity for their own consumption, it would nevertheless be a great profit, for them and for the realm."

The culture of cotton has extended still farther northwards, in the parts of Asia which border on the Caspian sea, on Caucasus, and the sea of Azof. We have valuable information on this subject from three naturalist-travellers, who wrote in German: Tales, Gueldenstadt, and Gemelin.

The first (vol. iii. pag. 503 and 521) describes the culture of the annual cotton-plant, as practised on a large scale by the inhabitants of Great Boukary and of the country of Chiva. These countries lie from lat. 40 southward. It is sown in the beginning of the spring, and three crops are reaped.

Gueldenstadt, who principally sought after the vegetables of the countries he visited, gives, in his first volume, an enumeration of the useful plants, wild or cultivated, which grow on the banks of the Terek, especially between the fortress of Mordok and the Caspian sea.

He speaks, on that occasion, of plantations of the yearly cotton-plant, which were not numerous at the time he travelled, but succeeded very well. These plantations are mostly near the north bank of the Terek. This river, after running in a line almost parallel with lat. 44°, discharges itself into the Caspian sea, below Kislar.

Gemelin, in vol. iv. of his Travels, p. 37, gives a more detailed account of the culture of cotton; he informs us, that it is cultivated on the banks of the Kourus, which rises in lat. 44° runs down to 45°, and discharges itself into the Caspian sea, in 44° 50′. He considers that country as very fit for the culture of the plant, and he thinks it may and *must*, one day form an important object both of agriculture and commerce. This able and judicious observer is convinced, that cotton might be cultivated on a large scale, in the south of the Ukraine, between the Manitsch and the Kouban; *i. e.* from lat. 44 to 48°, as well as in the fruitful countries which border the Volga, from Tschernoiar lat. 47° to Saratof, towards 51°. Cotton is sown in those countries at the end of March, and in the course of April; it is gathered in September.

If we consider the temperature of the countries we have just mentioned, we find, from the reports of the most intelligent and correct travellers, that the cold in winter is more severe, and more continued than in our southerly departments, and that the heat in summer, though more active, is not more intense or continual there than in those departments. If there be a difference, it is hardly observable. It is proper to remark, that during the season of the great heats which prevail in the countries between Caucasus, the sea of Azof and the Caspian, the hottest days are always succeeded by very cool nights. From these several circumstances, we cannot doubt that the culture of cotton may succeed as well on a large scale in our land, as in the Asiatic countries, lying under the same parallel as our southern departments.

Several countries in the Levant, which furnish a great quantity of cotton, are greatly similar in respect to climate to the southern departments of France. There are even some, in which, according to travellers, the colds are as keen, without the heats being more intense. Such are Macedonia, and Natolia. Mr. Felix Beaujour, who resided for several years at Salonica as French consul, says in his "Tableau du Commerce de la Grèce:"—It is certain that the climate in Provence is milder, and more moderate than that of Macedonia. Here the vicinity of the Athos, of the Pangea and of the Olympus, occasions frequent changes in the temperature. The air which descends from these high mountains, and circulates in the vallies of Macedonia, very much cools the atmosphere. I have seen, in Salonica, the thermometer lower than it has ever been observed at Marseilles. It is not, therefore, to be doubted that cotton may be regularly cultivated in our southern departments.

If we examine the new continent, we find the culture of vegetable cotton established in several states of America. We shall not speak of the culture long since practised in Mexico, Louisiana, the Two Floridas, and Georgia. Our inductions from those countries would prove nothing in favour of France. We take as a line of partition the states which lie in lat. 33°, and farther north; among these are the South and North Carolinas, Virginia, Maryland, and the Delaware states. We think it unnecessary to observe that the number of mountains, lakes, rivers, woods, and waste lands of North America, greatly increase the intensity and continuance of the winter cold, and make the summers less hot than they are in Europe, in the same latitude. The difference in that respect, betwixt these two continents may be estimated at 6 or 8 degrees.

The soil of South Carolina may be compared to that of our Bourdeaux Heaths. It is generally light, sandy, covered with pines, and wild, like that tract of land which extends from Bourdeaux to Bayonne. Cotton is most successfully cultivated in that part of America which extends from 32° to 35°; here they also rear the orange tree; the fruit of which, it is true, is of an inferior quality.

In North Carolina, between 33° 50″, and 36° 30″, the soil is more fruitful, and cotton is more cultivated. They sow it every year, because its stem is destroyed by the cold.

Higher up towards Virginia, we find a climate less warm than those we have spoken of. That country, which on the west borders those high mountains the Allaganys, lies from 36° 30″ to 40° 30″. The land, though unfruitful, still yielded good crops of tobacco; but the inhabitants who have begun within these few years, the culture of cotton, have found it so profitable that they encrease it every day, and quit that of tobacco, and even that of corn. Indeed, it has been calculated that the first culture brings much more profit than the other two; and that it would be advantageous to continue it, were the price of cotton no more than six pence per pound, in the country. The quantity of cotton which Virginia now produces makes it an important branch of trade.

The profits derived from this culture by the inhabitants of the south part of the United States, have encouraged the proprietors of lands further north; and experiments have been made within these three or four years past in Delaware, and Maryland; the first of which states includes from 38° 29″ to 39° 54″; the latter from 37° 56″ to 39° 44″,

The soil in these states is low and watery, very fruitful in some parts, and sandy and indifferent in several others. Our informations on the probable success of the cultivation of cotton in this part of America, are too incorrect to enable us to speak decidedly; yet it appears to prevail more and more every day.

From these facts we learn that the culture of cotton in North America extends to lat. 40°, and from a comparison of the climate of the two countries, it must also appear that we can introduce the same culture into our southern departments. Experience alone can show how far it may be rendered easy and profitable.

If, quitting America, we enquire which are the countries in Europe, where cotton is cultivated? we find, that it is between lat. 36° and 41°, viz. in the islands of Malta, Sicily, and Lipari, in some parts of the kingdom of Naples, on the sea coast of Spain, and in several islands in the Archipelago.

It is difficult to ascertain the epochs of the introduction of that culture into these several places; it was probably brought by the Saracens, who enlightened in more than one way, the Christian countries which they conquered. The Arabian writers assert that it was constantly produced in Spain when that country was governed by the Moors. More modern authors state, that towards the eleventh century cotton was extensively cultivated in Sicily, as well as in Spain; and it appears that its culture still prevailed in this latter country in the beginning of the seventeenth century. Father Martin de Koa relates, in his history of the city of Elsc, that in its neighbourhood, it was generally cultivated in 1629. Yet, Herrera, who wrote his Treatise on Rural Economy about that time, does not mention cotton. That culture acquired a fresh vigour in the first year of the French revolution, and lately it has spread considerably. I have seen vast cotton fields near Motril, Elche, Malaga, Velès, Malaga-Torros, Almunécar, and in other places. But modern Spain has not nearly given to the culture of cotton that extent of which it is susceptible, and she will not for a long time be able to cope with the Moors in that branch of rural economy.

I have also found cotton in some parts of Sicily and Calabria. But its culture is trifling there, considering the extensive tracts of lands in which it might succeed. Malta and the Lipari islands reap abundantly more cotton in proportion to the extent of their territories.

All these last-mentioned countries enjoy a warmer climate than France; yet the difference in their comparative temperature with that of our southern departments is not considerable enough to deprive us of all hopes; it seems, on the contrary, to prove, that with a good mode of culture, our labours will be crowned with success.

Besides the trials made in several parts of Europe, which we have mentioned in the beginning of this article, we find that the culture of cotton has been attempted in Corsica and Sardinia. It seems that it succeeded very well in both countries; but we do not know in what condition it is at present.

To all the probabilities which we have adduced, and which might be considered as approaching towards certainty, we shall add two facts which we understand are not to be doubted, but which if correct, peremptorily determine the question, and clearly show that the culture of cotton must succeed in France, since it has already been extensively practised there.

The first of these facts we have found in a book that is rather scarce, printed in Toulouse in 1565, intituled, *Recueil, et discours du voiage du Roi Charles IX de ce nom, à present regnant, accompagné de choses dignes de memoire*, &c. by Abel Jouan. In that kind of journal the author says:

"This day the King entered Yerres, a large and good city. Around this town there is such a number of orange, palm and pepper trees,* and other *trees which bear cotton*, that they look like forests."

The same fact is certified by Peter de Quiqueram de Beau-jeu, Bishop of Senez, in the curious and scarce work which he published in 1606, entitled, *La nouvelle Architecture, ou instruction générale pour ensemencer toutes sortes d'arbres fruitiers, avec l'usage et propriétés d'iceux.* In the 2d book of the 52d chap. which is entitled *Des cannes de sucre, du poivre,* COTON, *girofle, canelle*, we read the following sentences, p. 426.

"Have we not enough to admire in the rarities of our Provence, who shows herself so kind and liberal as to grow most successfully the sugar canes, planted within these late years. We equal now-a-days other countries, and possess like them a *great quantity* of *cotton plants.*"

The testimony of these two authors is confirmed by J. Bauhin; who informs us, that in his time *cotton* was grown in France, and that it had been brought from Italy. *Hoc jam in Galliâ nasci ferunt ex Italiâ delatum. (Historia Plantarum, lib. III. p. 143.)*

These instances are clear enough to prove, that cotton has been extensively cultivated in some districts of Provence, two centuries and a half ago. The causes which interrupted that culture are not easily discovered. Fashion, fancy, the extension of commerce, the severity of seasons, and exorbitant taxes might be so many obstacles which opposed the success of this species of agricultural industry.

* The *schinus molle*, L. is meant here.

But, the taste, the wants and circumstances of the present times, require new contrivances, and commercial as well as agricultural speculations, unlike those of a century ago.

If the climate of the southern departments of France be favorable to the culture of cotton, the resources of art, by aiding the climate, may render that culture more easy, extensive, certain, and profitable. These resources we shall hereafter endeavour to unfold.

If the departments in the south of France are capable of producing good crops of cotton, Corsica and the river of Genoa offer still better chances. The plants indigenous to hot countries, which grow freely there, remove all doubts on this subject. There are in Corsica many extensive tracts of waste land, which, with little labour and expense might be planted with cotton, and yield great profit to the proprietors.

CHINESE MANUSCRIPT IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

Abstract of an Apology for the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, stating the Grounds for declining to print a Chinese Manuscript, in the British Museum.—Circular, to Members of the Society, in conformity to the Resolution of a General Meeting, held Dec. 1, 1807.

Some strictures on the proceedings of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, having appeared in the notes subjoined to a sermon preached before the University of Cambridge, on May 10, 1807, by the Rev. Francis Wrangham, &c. an old member of that society submits the following apology for their conduct to the public, and to every supporter of the extension of Christianity in India.

The charge of Mr. Wrangham occurs p. 38 and 39, and consists of the following passages:

"He (Rev. Henry Brunton) has already published in the Turkish language, but in the Arabic character, at the Karass press, a tract against Mahometanism, in which the quotations from the Koran are translated into that language, and has likewise made considerable progress in a Version of the New Testament. See Third Report of the British and Foreign Bible Society, App. IX. This had long ago (and, therefore, perhaps, more inaccurately) been effected, chiefly at the expense of Mr. Boyle; and the bible likewise, to the great chagrin and alarm of the Mufti, had been translated into the same language early in the last century by command of the Grand Signor, in order to be confronted with the Koran. (Mill. ii. 918.) For the printing of this new Version, however, the author has been obliged to wait for paper, at a high price, from Petersburgh or Moscow. In the mean while, the Turkish Doctors study the Arabic New Testaments sent from England, that language being far more familiar even to their literati. Well therefore may the Eclectic Reviewers, referring to the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge with an income exceeding £8000 per ann. in a tone of laudable indignation inquire: 'Why is it, that the New Testament does not circulate, in Arabic and Persian, through Mohammedan countries; and in modern Greek, over Turkey, the Archipelago, and a considerable part of the Russian empire?'"

"In the Rev. William Moseley's Memoir, on introducing the Christian Scriptures into China, occurs the following passage: 'From China a door would be opened to all the dependent and surrounding kingdoms—to the trackless country of the Tartars, on the north; to the extensive kingdom of Tibet, on the west; to the populous states of Cochin-China, Tonquin, Laos, Ava, Pegu, Siam, and Malacca, on the south; and to Corea, and the islands of Japan, Formosa, and the Philippines, on the east. This vast field comprehends nearly one half of the human race!' Mr. Barrow informs us, that 'the Chinese character is understood from the gulf of Siam to the Tartarian sea, and over a very considerable part of the great Eastern Archipelago; and that the Cochin-Chinese use no other writing than the pure Chinese character, which is also the case with the Japanese.' (Travels in China, p. 615.) What the above-mentioned society however, with all their wealth, have abandoned—probably, as too expensive (see Buchanan, App M.) it is hardly to be hoped that the poorer societies of recent establishment should adopt with effect. Accordingly, the very important project of translating the scriptures into Chinese has been bandied from Mr. Moseley to Dr. Gaskin, from Dr. Gaskin to Mr. Scott, from Mr. Scott to Lord Teignmouth, &c. The Christian Society give it up; the Society for Missions to Africa and the East think it 'more within the ability and province of the British and Foreign Bible Society;' and it would most likely have fallen to the ground, had it not been undertaken, at the private expense of individual members of the College of Fort-William, by a single native of China, assisted by a Chinese munshi! Some chapters of Genesis and of St. Matthew have already been printed off."

The substance of this charge may be considered under the following heads:

I. That the society has an income of £8000 a year, and ought to employ it, or a portion of it, in promoting translations of the scriptures.

II. That they have not only failed in this application of their funds, but have shuffled off the applications made to them, by bandying the important project from Mr. Moseley to Dr. Gaskin, from Dr. Gaskin to Mr. Scott, and from Mr. Scott to Lord Teignmouth.

I. In answer to the first part of the charge it may be observed, that the society, as appears by their annual account this year, 1807, is possessed of a revenue amounting to £13,494, besides a benefaction, accruing in the present account, of about £10,000, expressly for the support of missionaries in foreign parts.

For the expenditure of this large revenue, the society hold themselves bound, as trustees for executing the purposes designed by their original institution. If they neglect this duty,—if they conceal an item of their receipt or disbursement,—they are worthy of Mr. Wrangham's reprehension.

The original design of the institution had not in contemplation the extension of the Gospel in foreign parts, but the promotion of christian knowledge at home; and as the poor either could not, or would not purchase books of instruction, the first object was to circulate bibles, prayer books, and religious tracts, by such means, and on such terms, as were most likely to be effectual.

This, with the encouragement of charity schools, was their primary design at their establishment in 1698; but the Danish mission at Tranquebar falling into distress, the society in 1710 undertook the management of such contributions, as should be put into their hands for the support of that mission. Thus commenced their connexion with the East Indies;—and since that time, other missions have been established in that country, wholly relying upon the society for support, till the amount of the annual supply is more than £1000, besides the expence of obtaining and conveying missionaries to that country.

In 1720, a further attempt was made to promote the same laudable purpose in Palestine, Syria, Egypt, &c. by publishing 6000 psalters, 10,000 testaments, and 5000 catechetical instructions in the Arabic language, at an expence approaching to £3000l. Thus commenced their connexion with translations, and since the commencement, the same good intent has been followed up by printing three very numerous editions of the scriptures in Welsh, and by assisting the Manx and Gaelic translations.

So far then the society has not been negligent in promoting christian knowledge; and, if it is asked, how their ample funds are now applied.—The distribution of 177,500 bibles and tracts, at an expence of £10,359,* with £1075 to the missions, will account for £11,434 out of their revenue of £13,494, and the remainder of their expenditure may be seen in their annual account.

On examination of the Chinese manuscript in the British Museumby Dr. Montucci, it was discovered, that it was not a translation of any one Gospel, but a collection of the Gospel History from the Evangelists; and probably a composition by a Romish missionary, or native Neophyte, for the use of the Chinese converts, and that the expence of printing 500 copies, according to Dr. Montucci's estimate, would have amounted to £8000. Whether it would have been advisable for the society to adopt such a composition, derived from a source so suspicious, and in a language which admitted not of correction, and in which they had no means of discovering erroneous doctrine, is a consideration of great importance, more particularly when the sum required to effect the purpose, would have engrossed nearly two-thirds of the annual provision for the standing and appropriate objects of the care of the society.

The society could not know whether they might not have disseminated the doctrine of transubstantiation, or the worship of the virgin, instead of genuine christianity; and if we were to judge of the Jesuits' doctrine by the specimen given in Kircher's China Illustrata, there would have been reason to doubt at every step that was to be taken towards receiving any thing that passed through a medium so corrupted.

That specimen consists of a programma affixed to the door of the Jesuits' church in Pekin, which contained the substance of such knowledge as would be communicated by the teachers in that college; but in detailing the precepts of the decalogue, it omitted * the second commandment, in the same manner as we have lately seen the same commandment suppressed in the French catechism, published under the authority of Buonaparte. But in China this was more necessary than in Europe, for the Jesuits had images in their churches, and the devotions practised before a crucifix, or an image of the virgin, must have struck the mind of so acute a people as the Chinese, without having the means of distinguishing between Δουλεια and Λατρεια.

Let any man produce a Chinese translation of a single Gospel, and let it be authenticated as genuine by any competent judge of

* £798, part of this sum charged to stores, consists chiefly of gratuitous supplies to the royal navy.

* This omission has been long sanctioned by the church of Rome, and to make up the number of the commandments a decalogue, the tenth has been divided into two.

the language, and then if the society declined their share of the burden, there might be some ground for the charge;—but, in that case, it is highly probable that the society would not only largely contribute,—but if their annual receipt were incompetent, would liberate some part of their funded property to meet the exigency.

Still perhaps it will be urged, that an accession of above £10,000 in one year to the funds of the society, by the legacy of the Rev. Mr. Canning, may justify an enlargement of the missionary concerns. Certainly it may,—but the legacy is destined to a particular purpose by the legator, that is, to the procuring and supporting missionaries in foreign parts: it cannot be applied to forwarding translations. And till the missions themselves can be put upon some better footing than that, in which the present annual account states them to be, the society must pause, and wait for advice, and act with circumspection, before this benefaction can be applied to any extension of its missionary concerns.

The evil does not arise from the society, but from the circumstances of the times. English missionaries do not offer,—and German missionaries in the present distracted condition of that country are not to be procured. Added to which, so much novelty in doctrine has sprung up in Germany, in consequence of *French principles* on one hand, and *wild enthusiasm* on the other, that every missionary who might offer, is not to be accepted without great caution. With the Lutherans of that country, we have long acted in concert, and not found our confidence misplaced. The Lutheran church has furnished us with a Ziegenbalgh, a Swartz, a Gericke, a Jænicke—men who would have done honour to the primitive ages of the church; and if successors worthy of these devoted servants of Christ could now be procured, no expence, consistent with the general designs of the society, would be spared.

So far this vindication of the society.——

It may not be amiss to add, that, at the request of the Bible Society, this Chinese MS. was examined by Mr. Taylor, the engraver, who reported that the expence of *engraving* it, might be contracted to about £3,500, after which the *printing* of any number of copies, might be continued at pleasure. But the advice given by that gentleman after his inspection, was, that certain passages of *the same Gospel*, should be selected, and engraved, on ten or twelve plates, at the expence of £100, or thereabouts, by way of experiment, whether such a work could be introduced into China, at all. For it seems reasonable to suppose, that if a *small* volume, or roll, of five or six leaves, could *not* be circulated among the Chinese people, that the attempt to circulate a large and bulky volume, was hopeless. The principles on which this cautious advice was suggested, have been amply justified by events in the Empire of China, [Comp. Panorama, Vol. I. pp. 578, 627. Vol. II. p. 1057.] which are not the first instance of the fatal effects attending too much publicity of religious zeal, in that country.

DEROGATORY DANGERS ATTENDANT ON THE SITUATION OF ACTRESSES.

[From Public Characters of 1807, p. 179, &c.]

We shall not be suspected of concurring with *every* sentiment comprized in the following extract: nor of applauding the style, or the choice of expression in which the writer has thought proper to convey his observations. The same remarks from the pen of a grave author, might have been liable to the imputation of prejudice against dramatic amusements; but as no such accusation will be credited in the present instance, it is fair to conclude that this evidence is unexceptionable in proof of *some* of the difficulties to which morals are exposed in theatrical engagements, and of *some* of those degradations under which public taste, national manners, and even common sense, are debased. The difficulties attendant on dramatic writers, have not escaped our notice, [Comp. Panorama, Vol. I. p. 313.] a *part* of those which surround dramatic performers, especially of the female sex, may be contemplated in the present instance. [Comp. Panorama, Vol. II. p. 46.]

Her's is a career of danger; she has no solitude to which she may retire, and avoid the persecutions of the gorgon and the satyr; detraction pursues her steps; and the spirit of libertinism, disguised as love or friendship, invades the remotest shades of her repose. To be known to have been in peril gives sufficient premises to malice to conclude that *ruin* has ensued. Many lovely women have lost their reputations from this very cause. Imperious circumstances having placed them under temptations to deviate from the right path, they are supposed to have fallen. To be put to trial, and to be condemned, are the same things with the generality of the world. It is enough for the malignant envier of youth, beauty, and celebrity, to hear it applauded, to see it attended by the admiration of men of taste, rank, and talents, to guess that it has been *betrayed*. If the malicious do not sin-

cerely believe the surmise, they do not hesitate to speak as if they did; and yet, perhaps, it would be difficult to find the circulator of a cruel tale that did *not believe it*; for, judging by their own hearts (which we are all apt to do), they cannot conceive the possibility of being virtuous from principle; of preserving honour at the expence of ambition, and, hardest trial of all, of love!

Superiority of attractions is sufficient to provoke the spleen of a thousand disappointed coquets; and when those attractions are become an object of public conversation; when the smiles of their fair possessor would be regarded by men of pleasure as a feather in their cap of vanity; these men are inclined to make vain boasts, and to recount favours which they never received. This is one way of tarnishing a bright character; and the other is, to *hum* and *ha*, and *shake the head*, at the virtue which presumption has found to be impregnable. Unhappy pre-eminence! when the height on which the innocent stands makes her only a surer aim for the arrow of falsehood!

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In the summer season of 1792 miss ——— was prevailed upon by Mr. Johnstone (for his benefit) to undertake to play the part of *Macheath* to his *Lucy* and old Bannister's *Polly*. Loud applauses followed this monstrous cast of characters. Miss ——— acted with discrimination and spirit. The public were pleased, were intoxicated: every lip moved in gay approval of the sprightly little captain. It was well; at least the character was well dressed, well sung, and well acted; and well in miss ———, who, in taking the part, merely complied with one of the many caprices which her profession is obliged to submit to. But such absurd, unqualified, and reiterated, testimonies of approbation, were not well in the public.

In assuming the male garb miss ——— did no outrage to her modesty. There is no more necessity in reason to interdict the women of England from caring the usual close habit of a man, than there is against the men in Turkey for usurping the common garments of women, and apparelling themselves in petticoats. Distinctions of dress are laws of custom only; and by the custom of seeing the limbs of one sex displayed, and those of the other always concealed, ideas of decency and indecency become attached to the obeying or disobeying of these customs. Hence, in the north of Europe, a female adopting any part of the male attire is accused as an infringer of a proper law, and condemned as having made a breach in modesty. When vanity is the mover in the assumption of any unusual garb; when a woman, at its command, steps out of the common mode, and intrudes upon the fashions of the other sex, either in gait, manner, or apparel, she renders herself obnoxious to the charge of indelicacy, nay, of impudence; and must of course be shunned by the women, and despised by the men.

But in the case of the fair representer of *Captain Macheath*, she who, by the hard enforcements of obligation, was constrained to shew the entire symmetry of her little form, from the period when she personified Cupids and Sylphs, till she gradually, approached maturity, through the various male characters of pages, genii, &c.; she could not, with any justice, have been accused of outraging her own modesty, or even decorum, in putting on the character of *Captain Macheath*. We repeat, *she* did *well* in two instances: she undertook an arduous part to serve a brother-performer, and she accomplished what she undertook. But did her *audience well*, to load her with applauses in the theatre; to speak with ardour of the delightful actress, and yet blame her for giving occasion for that pleasure? Inconsistent, ungrateful, public! Libertine even in your most innocent amusement! While you applaud, you blame; while your praises seduce, your rigour condemns! Every lover of female delicacy; of the timid step, the downcast eye, and blushing cheek; of interesting, virtuous, and patient, woman, must deprecate the prevalence of the taste which unsexes females, and puts them in the place of men, on our different stages. They are excused; but the public, who declare a more lively admiration of them while under metamorphose than when they appear as nature had intended; and the mercenary authors who write to gratify so vicious a fancy, are unpardonably to blame. The actress herself is pledged to take whatever character the manager assigns to her; and she is no more reprehensible for appearing as *Sir Harry Wildair*, or *Captain Macheath*, than the soldier would be when he obeys his commander's extravagant orders, and strives to seize some post that is out of his line, and beyond his powers. The soldier forfeits no honour in the repulse; the disgrace falls upon his general. The actress loses no virtue by appearing without the gates of modesty; they who called her forth, and they who hailed her approach, are the culprits; they stand at the bar of injured delicacy; it is they who affront woman in thus tearing off her veil, and setting her before the multitude.

When the respectable and charming woman is degraded to play the jockey in buckskins, a whip and jacket; when girt up in a recruit's uniform she is made to go through the manual exercise before a shouting and vulgar mob, the eye of delicacy turns away, and that of friendship closes on the scene. When such low and gross characters are to be performed on the stage, let those take them who have abandoned all claim to respect;

and if there be no such actresses in our theatres, let there be no such plays in our theatres

. . . . . .

The revolution of manners which the revolution in France spread over all Europe, even to the very centre of its courts, produced laxity on one side, and an extreme stiffness on the other. Urbanity, modesty, politeness, and the graces, seemed to fly before anarchy, impudence, and effrontery, and all the wild variety of rudeness. The really civilized and worthy took alarm at this; and the bond of division was drawn very tight. Women are now either too facile in yielding their conversation to men, or too reserved in withholding it. Unamiable as a cold demeanour may seem, they who adopt it know that it is one means of defending that ground of respectability on which the female character rests. When men cease to regard women with that reverence which restrains them from attempting personal freedoms; and when, instead of the bow of salutation, and polite inquiry after health, the rough seizure, shake by the hand, and familiar "How d'ye do?" are substituted; to repel such impertinence a chilling and distant air must be worn. Could the lovely sex freeze the coxcombs into lumps of ice, and transport them to the North seas, they might find much congenial society amongst the bears of the polar star. In short, it is the duty of every woman of delicacy to sacrifice the softer graces of the gentle queen of beauty, when called upon, to assume in their place the severer mien of a Diana, whose dignity will not brook intrusion. Such curbs in the hand of the fair are highly requisite to preserve public decorum and private happiness. The decent reserves which are maintained between the sexes hold them in their proper stations and distances. But when the approach is not only made close, but with a shock, all the roughnesses and deformities of each are discovered and felt. An ugly equality is introduced; a disgusting familiarity: and where ugliness and disgust cohabit, love is smothered in the cradle. Nothing so pure can exist in contaminated air; and the breath of his nurse is pestilence. There is a sprite (who sometimes assumes the name of the "gentle god of soft desires"), a serpent-form, the detestable *anteros!* He may be engendered in the fog; for his food is poison, and his touch is more baneful than the plague: it gives inquietude, misery, contempt, and death.

The stage, from its many disagreeables, and the despotic powers of its rulers, is far from being a station of safety, either for the character or the feelings. The feeling of delicacy is wounded, as was before said, when a woman is constrained to appear as a man: and therefore the authors of these monstrous transformations (if they mean to be honest men) in vain plead the public taste in their favour (a taste for vice can never make vice virtue); in vain appeal to the plays of Shakspeare as an authority. If they do not produce such credentials on the presumption of having an ignorant jury, they must be ignorant themselves, else they would know that the witness they have brought forward will give evidence on the other side. Shakspeare must ever speak for nature. There were no female actresses on the stage during the reign of Elizabeth; and to *avoid* unnatural assumptions of a different sex, he put as many of his female characters, as the management of his plot would allow, into the habits of men. As boys were to personate his Imogen, Viola, Rosalind, &c. he preferred humouring Nature, before the egregious absurdity of forcing her to a grotesque compliance with his own fancy.

LAVATER.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

SIR,—All your readers will no doubt agree with your correspondent HERMIT *, that they have received great pleasure in perusing the various accounts of customs and manners dispersed throughout your instructive Miscellany.

As remarks on celebrated characters may be equally entertaining, I have taken the liberty of transmitting to you a few relating to the celebrated Swiss Physiognomist, from the travels of a Russian nobleman.

"When I had rung the bell," says M. Karamsin, "there appeared a tall slender man of a pale complexion, whom I instantly knew to be Lavater. He conducted me to his closet, and welcomed me to Zurich. After a few questions about my journey, he said, "Have the goodness to call again. I am busy at present: or stay and read, or look over any thing you please, and do just as if you were at home." He then shewed me some folios in his book case, lettered *Physiognomical Cabinet*, and left the room. He returned several times to fetch a book or some paper, but immediately left the room again. At length he entered it, took me by the hand, and conducted me to a company of literati.

"Lavater has an extremely venerable appearance; a firm resolute air; a long pale face; piercing eyes, and a very grave look. All his motions shew animation and agility, and he utters every word with energy. In his tone there is something dictatorial, which is probably a consequence of his profession, but is corrected by a look of the most undissembled candour and simplicity of heart.

"When I called the next day, I found Lavater writing a letter. In half an hour the room was filled with visitors. These visits

* Vide Panorama, Vol. III. p. 560.

would be troublesome to any other person; but Lavater told me that he was fond of seeing strangers, and that he learnt many new things of them.

"Early the next morning he sent to invite me to go with him and a few friends into the country. We sat down to a plentiful repast, and joked and laughed. After dinner we sat down to play,—not at cards. Each took a piece of paper, upon which he wrote any question that came into his head. The papers were then mixed, again distributed, and every one had now to answer to the question he had received, and write down a new one. This game continued till the piece of paper was full, and then they were all read aloud. Many of the answers were well adapted to the subjects; but those of Lavater differed from the rest, as the moon from the stars. As an example, I will annex a few of the questions and answers.

Q. "Who is the real benefactor?" A. "He who relieves present distress." The question, "Is the life of any particular person absolutely necessary for the completion of any particular purpose?" Was answered in the following manner: "it is necessary, if he remains alive; but would be unnecessary, were he todie." Different words without any connection were then given, and each had to make sense of them, which gave occasion to a good deal of laughter."

Such were the recreations of the pious Lavater, who was basely assassinated by a Frenchman or a Swiss Should so benevolent and peacable a man have expected a death so cruel in his native city? "Lavater," says Col. Masson, "was a christian philosopher, ascetic and mystical, but tolerant and enlightened; an ardent and virtuous philanthropist, though systematical and credulous. It is to be regretted, for the sake of religion and philosophy, that he did not live some centuries earlier. He might then have rendered services to each, and would perhaps have conciliated them."

I am yours, &c.

SCRIBBLER.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICE ON THE MARQUIS DE POMBAL: FORMERLY SECRETARY OF STATE, AND PRIME MINISTER OF PORTUGAL.

Don Sebastian Joseph Carvallo Melho, so well known by the title of Marquis de Pombal, was born in 1699, of a noble Portuguese family, of the second rank. Eminently gifted with advantages of person, he married in the early part of his life, a Portugnese lady, of birth superior to his own: and this ill-sorted union embittered his days. He, however, attempted, by means of his new connections, to make his way at Court; but all his endeavours proved at that time fruitless. Disappointed in his ambitious hopes, he shut himself up in his country residence; and to avoid as much as possible the intolerable company of his lady, he gave himself up entirely to study. The laws of his country, and the laws of nations as publicly avowed in Europe, were the principal objects of his researches; and from that kind of study, he contracted a diffuse and pedantic manner of writing, which was afterwards conspicuous in all his productions.

After several years of political seclusion, Carvallo saw at last the long-wished-for prospect opening to his view; he had been a widower for some time, when, in 1745, he was sent to Vienna, on a secret mission. He was then forty-six years of age, but neither his time of life, nor his diplomatic occupations, prevented him from paying his addresses to a young countess of the Daun family, whom he married, shortly afterwards. This marriage was the principal cause of his fortune. The court of Vienna, where his lady's family was highly considered, interested itself powerfully in favour of Carvallo, and at the death of John V. King of Portugal, in 1750, King Joseph, his successor, appointed him Secretary for foreign affairs. In this situation he remained five years, without any marked pre-eminence over his colleagues; but, a calamitous circumstance soon gave him an opportunity of displaying the superior powers of his mind. Every one knows, that in 1755, Lisbon was visited by an earthquake, which laid the whole city in ruins: in that awful situation, the King, his ministers, and his courtiers, unmanned by terror, were incapable of any resolution, and vented their fears, in womanish superstitions. Mean time, fires had broken out in many places among the ruins: and numerous banditti were ransacking the desolated city, as their lawful prey. Carvallo alone, undismayed in the general consternation, gathered some soldiers, and at their head, perambulated the ruins. He stopped the progress of the flames; punished the banditti on the spot; and, with the utmost presence of mind, and the greatest activity, established regulations which saved the remnants of Lisbon. The King recovered at last from his panic, and appreciating the courage of Pombal, from the extent of his own fears, considered him as a being of a superior order; and this minister's ascendancy over his weak mind, was thus established for ever.

Pombal abused this ascendancy but too much. He kept his master in a state of almost degrading subservience; while he was himself surrounded with all the outward pomp and trappings of absolute power, to dazzle the eyes of the gaping multitude. He ob-

tained a body of horse-guards, under pretence of his personal protection. Wherever he went, his coach was preceded by eight or ten horse-men, with drawn sabres, making way for him; and a smaller number followed it. But, the object he had most at heart, was that of humiliating the high Portuguese nobility. There was an absolutely exclusive distinction established in Portugal, between seven or eight families of that class, and the rest of the nobility. They boasted of being free from all blots; such as intermarriages with moors, jews, and negroes, judgments of the inquisition, &c. To preserve this purity spotless, they intermarried among each other only: M. Pombal attempted to annihilate this distinction, so humiliating to the rest of the nobility. It was a customary thing for him, to make use of the King's authority, to farther his own designs; and he had recourse to it in this undertaking. He forbad in the name of his Majesty such and such marriages, which he knew were in contemplation, between members of these exclusive families; he thus forced them to stoop to the second class for connections, which answered the double purpose of lowering their pride, and of elevating that class to which he himself belonged.

Before Pombal's administration, the Portuguese noblemen made it a constant practice to set at defiance even the most sacred laws; but he soon curbed their licentious spirits, by the most inflexible restrictions; they murmured, but they trembled, and obeyed—even the continuation of their titles depended on the King's will, and consequently on the minister's whim; by the custom of Portugal, the son of a deceased nobleman cannot assume his father's title, till it is confirmed to him by the King:—this confirmation Pombal often withheld for eight or ten years; by such means he reduced them to the blindest submission, though accompanied with the most inveterate hatred. It was, especially, on his birth-day, that he received from them those unanimous testimonies of seeming obsequiousness, which he well knew how to appreciate: this was a day of triumph for his pride, and for his malignity. He then beheld collected in his palace, the most illustrious, and the proudest grandees, of Portugal. In that crowd of suitors, he took a secret pleasure in remarking such a one, whose father he had brought to the block; such another, whose brother lay at that very moment in a dungeon, by his orders, &c.

This unlimited power extended even over the ministers, who seemed to share with him, in a certain degree, the King's confidence. The Marquis of Pombal was nominally minister of the interior only; but, in fact, he presided likewise over all the other departments. His colleagues, decorated with empty titles, did nothing but through him, as they sometimes were forced to own. M. Pombal often kept them in ignorance of the business of their own offices; every thing went through his hands; and he entered into the minutest details. A note was once brought to him for signature, containing only a permit for a traveller to take post horses, he found fault with the style, and dictated another. He was indefatigable in the labours of his office; busy from the dawn of day; he never had fixed hours for his meals; he usually dined very late, and eat most voraciously; for which he was visited by frequent indigestions. After dinner he used to take a ride in a coach, with a monk, a relation of his, who was said to be a man of uncommon stupidity. This man was his sole company; and that ride was his only recreation. He soon afterwards returned to his closet, where he remained occupied till late at night. He had two secretaries to write under him; they were mere machines, without any understanding, without eyes; he had trained them himself, and they were constantly at his disposal. One of them was a German, whom he had brought from Vienna: he made him at first his footman, then his porter, and lastly, his secretary. These two poor scribes were often so overloaded with business, that both were ill at the same time.

Notwithstanding his excesses in living, and his laborious life, the Marquis de Pombal enjoyed a state of health, so robust, that he indulged the strong hope of a long career. At the age of seventy-seven, shortly before his disgrace, he used to talk about finishing the rebuilding of Lisbon, and even of building a palace for the King; as if he had been in the vigour of youth. Excessively attached to life and to honours, he was no less addicted to the love of money; he even committed the most shocking vexations, to gratify his rapacity. He often confiscated the property of those whom he sacrificed to his ambition or to his resentment. Born to a small fortune, he had accumulated about £15,000 a year; an immense revenue for Portugal! He had built on his estate of Oeyras the finest mansion in the country; but that magnificent residence displayed no taste, because he was himself deficient in that respect; and he had only employed Portuguese artists. For the same reasons, Lisbon, which he has raised from its ruins, is far from gratifying the eyes of *connoisseurs*. Monstrous defects are strikingly obvious in the finest quarters of the town: and above all, in that famous square *Prazo del Comerçao*, where he has placed a monument to the late King.

This capital, however, in its restored state, evinces in a striking manner the power, and the activity, of the Marquis de Pombal. The other parts of the country, also, were gradually

assuming a new face under his administration. He used to say, that "he could not do every thing at once; and that time only could shew the advantages to be derived from his operations." For instance, he was the protector of the useful, and even of the fine, arts, so far as his judgment, none of the surest in that respect, could direct him. He had established woollen manufactures, he had attempted to form architects, and sculptors, in Portugal. After the expulsion of the Jesuits, which was in a great measure his work; he went to visit the University of Coimbra, over which they had exerted a great influence; here he made many reforms; among others, he established several Italian professors, who had the reputation of being learned men. The Jesuits were not the only religious order that he persecuted; he never disguised his aversion for monks, in general; and he gradually undermined the power of the inquisition. It was, perhaps, with a view to further these designs, that he allowed the dangerous works of Voltaire, and those of Rousseau, to be translated into the Portuguese language; but, on the other hand, he exerted all his power to prevent the introduction of maxims, or of ideas, which might have stood in contradiction to his despotic principles. Never, for instance, would he allow the post to arrive in Lisbon more than once a week; although the Spanish mail was received twice at Badajoz, the frontier town; for the same reason, he never permitted the establishment of a Portuguese Gazette; he feared, above all things, that the people should conceive a liking for arguing on politics; he wished them to be ignorant of whatever was passing in the rest of Europe; and that no news from Portugal should transpire but through him, as its channel. Among his commercial regulations some were of real advantage to the country; thus he succeeded in drawing a considerable benefit from the smuggling trade, which has always subsisted between Spain and Portugal, because he had the good sense to lessen the duties: while the Spanish government was following principles directly opposite.

This leads us to examine the conduct of the Marquis de Pombal in his relations with foreign courts; in this branch of administration, this man, in other respects so haughty, and so overbearing, assumed a new character, and conscious perhaps of the weakness of his country, had recourse to duplicity, and to deceit. Indeed, he considered the most sacred engagements as a mere matter of form; fit only to gain time, as the Spanish minister, Grimaldi, experienced to his great vexation, in 1776. A dispute had taken place between the two courts, respecting the limits of their respective colonies in South America; things had been carried to such a length, that an European war seemed to be the natural consequence. In these circumstances, the Marquis de Pombal affected the most earnest and most sincere wishes for an amicable settlement: he called upon the courts of London and of Versailles for their mediation; he even insisted that the matters in dispute should be entirely referred to those two powers; and that Spain and Portugal should abide by their decision. *People talk so much about your Family Compact*, he used to say to the French ambassador, *it is represented as a most formidable league against all other nations; you see I do not consider it as such, I trust entirely to you, I put myself into your hands.* In short, he had succeeded, in making the courts of Madrid, London and Versailles, adopt his plan for negotiation; a congress had been actually appointed, to meet at Paris, when news arrived that the Portuguese troops had advanced on Rio Grande, and taken forcible possession of the territory in dispute. Pombal, availing himself of the contempt in which his nation was held by the Spaniards, had prepared much better means of defence than he was supposed to possess: he had, without being noticed, raised the army to 40,000 men; the fortresses were amply provided with every necessary, and experienced officers had been received into the Portuguese service. The Marquis de Pombal was, however, well aware of the inferiority of his country compared to Spain; but he relied on the assistance of England, on the difficulty of maintaining an enemy's army in Portugal, on the nature of the country, intersected by large rivers, and by ridges of mountains, &c. However, the death of the king, and the dismissal of the minister, soon put an end to all warlike preparations.

The Marquis de Pombal had for a long time apprehended that event; the king's health was precarious; and he knew the general hatred he had incurred; to guard against impending danger, he had sought all the means of embroiling the affairs of the kingdom in such a manner, as to make his assistance necessary to the new sovereign, to guide her steps in a maze whose intricacies were known to him alone; and his plan was near succeeding. Hardly had king Joseph paid the last tribute, when the young queen (her present majesty) went to consult her mother, as to what line of conduct she should follow. *I suppose*, said the queen dowager, *that you are going to dismiss Pombal:* the young queen, who was of a mild disposition, and felt the danger of her new situation, answered in a faultering tone, *I suppose I must, since every body wishes it. In that case*, answered the queen-mother, *cease from this moment to transact business with him.* She foresaw that in seven or eight audiences, the crafty minister would have obtained a com-

plete ascendency over the mind of the young queen; and would have persuaded her that the country could not be saved, but by him.

The Marquis de Pombal, after his disgrace, retired to his estate of Oeyras: where he sought, and found, the means of ending his days in peace: a circumstance not very usual for disgraced ministers, in that country. A single trait, will shew the line of conduct to which he was indebted for that signal favour: His estate lay at no great distance from Coimbra, the bishop of which city had been for several years shut up in a dungeon, by order of the Marquis of Pombal. On the disgrace of that minister he was reinstated in his see, amidst the acclamations of his flock; and to enjoy his triumph more fully, he immediately set about visiting his diocese, before the enthusiasm of the people had time to cool. In the course of his apostolical journey, he stopped perhaps, on purpose, at the village belonging to Pombal, and close to his residence. This circumstance excited universal expectation: as soon as the ex-minister knew of the arrival of the bishop, he sent to enquire, at what hour he would be pleased to receive him? he was punctual to the time appointed, and began by throwing himself at his feet; nor did he rise till he had received his blessing. They afterwards remained in conversation for a quarter of an hour. The bishop returned the visit, punctually. As soon as Pombal saw the coach entering the gate, he ran to meet it; flew to the carriage door, and threw himself again on his knees, to receive the good prelate's blessing. At the foot of the stairs, the bishop met Pombal's daughter, who went through the same ceremonies, &c. The exiled minister followed the same line of conduct towards the monks, whom he detested and despised so much; and to many this may seem to imply no ordinary degree of meanness; but the clergy were all-powerful under the new reign; and the slightest want of respect to one member of this body, might have provoked the resentment of the whole. Pombal had besides, in the person of the queen's husband,* a personal enemy eager to seize every opportunity of avenging his private injuries, on the discarded minister; who now wished only to end his days in peace.

In his retreat Pombal continued to indulge his fondness for study; well-informed people affirm, that he kept a constant correspondence with the queen, on the various objects connected with government. Several political publications were expected as the produce of his leisure hours; but those expectations have been disappointed; whether through the interference of the Portuguese government, is not known. He died on May 8, 1782.

Were we to give our opinion on the character of this famous statesman, we should not hesitate in saying that the Marquis de Pombal was a man much above the ordinary level of mankind. Circumstances indeed eminently favoured the display of his great abilities, in a contracted sphere. An earthquake brought his country to a chaos-like confusion; thousands of concomitant disorders were to be remedied, or prevented; a capital was to be rebuilt; soon after, a conspiracy was formed against the life of his sovereign; great and powerful criminals were to be punished; a powerful society (the Jesuits) had become dangerous to the state, and was to be suppressed; Pombal had, besides, two wars to maintain, with inadequate means; his country wanted establishments of commerce, and manufactures; he had ancient prejudices to silence and powerful enemies to humble, &c. &c. Surely an ordinary man would have been crushed under the accumulated weight of so many enterprizes. M. de Pombal boldly undertook them, and succeeded. He had vices no doubt, but men must be strangely blinded by partiality, to deny his eminent qualities. Above all, he possessed that firmness of mind, that undaunted resolution, which indeed lead sometimes to the commission of crimes, but without which, no man ever atchieved great things.

* Don Pedro, who was at the same time her uncle. He never forgave Pombal, because that minister advised king Joseph, his brother, to have him arrested, as being implicated in the conspiracy of 1756.

ACCOUNT OF THE INDIGO PLANT, AND THE PREPARATION OF INDIGO, BY CITIZEN BULLEY. [From the French, and read at a public meeting of the Lyceum of Arts.]

The information contained in the following paper, may prove of great importance to our planters in the West India islands: as well as in the East Indies. It tends to reduce the process of making indigo, to a greater certainty than it possesses at present.

Query, has any one ever tried the effect of the Egyptian bean *(faba Egyptiaca)* by which the muddy water of the Nile is rendered clear and potable in a very short time, in precipitating the *fecula* of indigo?

Indigo is known to be a precipitated *fecula*, dried, and reduced into a solid mass, light, brittle and of a very deep azure colour. This substance is of great utility in the arts.—A great consumption is made of it in dyeing, painting, bleaching, and other processes of different manufactures.

The vegetable which produces this colour-

ing *fecula*, is termed the indigo plant, *indigofera*. It is of the genus of the polypetal plants, of the family of the leguminous, and has much resemblance to the *galegas*.

There are twenty seven species of indigo plants; to enumerate their differences, and describe their botanical characters would be tedious. It will be sufficient to direct our attention to the most interesting species, namely, that which yields the best indigo. It is termed, "indigo franc,"—"indigo fera anil." It is indigenous in America; and is cultivated with success in the southern parts of France, and in the West Indies, where fine indigo is prepared: the seed of the indigo *franc* is purposely mixed with that of the indigo *mazon*, in order to obtain a more considerable, and advantageous produce. The purpose for which this mixture is made, as well as all the operations belonging to the cultivation of the indigo plant, are fully related in a detailed memoir, that has been laid before the Lyceum of Arts. For the present, we shall confine ourselves to giving an account of an essential improvement in the preparation of indigo.

It will undoubtedly be heard with astonishment, that although indigo has been manufactured during the space of nearly a century, its preparation still consists in such imperfect approximations, that even amongst the best manufacturers, generally ten, fifteen, and even to the number of twenty-five, tubs fail, out of a hundred. Sometimes, even, either owing to want of experience or the contrarieties of temperature, a much larger number of tubs fail, and ruin the proprietor, who has depended on large profits: hence, in part, arises the high price of indigo. Whereas, should the proprietor of indigo-plants be secured, by means of a certain process, against the danger of losing the fruits of his expence and labour, he would then be able to sell his indigo at a cheaper rate: to the great advantage of the arts and manufactures, and consequently of commerce.

This great advantage France will at some future period be able to enjoy, and she will owe it to the labours and intelligence of one of the colonial proprietors of St. Domingo, who is at present in France, and a free associate of the Lyceum of Arts, I mean citizen Nazon.—Judicious observations, and a long course of experience, have convinced him, that it is possible to ensure the success of all the tubs of indigo.

In order to obtain this colouring substance, the indigo plant is cut when it is arrived at its maturity. The whole is put to macerate in a bason of brick-work, which is termed the tub *(cuve)*. Its dimensions are generally twelve feet.

To bring the maceration to its ultimate point, requires from fifteen to thirty, and even thirty six hours, more or less, according to the temperature of the atmosphere at the time of the operation. It is also necessary to take into consideration the quality of the indigo plant; the nature of the soil that has produced it; and that of the water in which it is immersed.

The first indication from which it is judged that the maceration approaches its ultimate point, is, the sinking of the scum, which has elevated itself into the space of about half a foot, which was left unfilled in the tub, containing the plants. When this scum has become a kind of crust, of a copper-blue colour, the moment is thought to be near at hand, at which the plants will be sufficiently macerated. However, this indication is insufficient, and often fallacious. There is another on which greater reliance is placed: it consists in drawing off a small quantity of the water, by means of a cock, placed at the lower part of the tub. This water is received into a silver cup; and notice is taken whether the *fecula* tends to precipitate itself to the bottom of the cup: when this is the case, it is concluded that the plants have undergone that degree of maceration, which is requisite for obtaining the indigo from them.

Such was the process most generally practised; but it too often occasioned mistake and error. To avoid this, we have sure means; which consist in accurately observing the water contained in the cup; five or six minutes after it has been poured into it, it forms, round the sides of the cup, a ring, or edge, of *fecula*, which is at first of a green colour; but afterwards it becomes blue. So long as the maceration has not produced its proper effect, this ring detaches itself with difficulty from the sides of the cup; but, at last, it is seen to precipitate and concentrate itself at the bottom of the vessel, always towards the centre; under the water, which is become limpid, though with a yellowish tinge.

When these appearances are observed, they infallibly indicate the success of this first operation. The water is then drawn off into a second bason, or tub, placed beneath the first. This second tub is termed the *batterie*, as its use is for *beating* the water, still charged with the *fecula*. In order that it may separate quickly, it is agitated. This operation is either performed by the labour of the hands or by means of a mill. It is of essential consequence not to agitate it for too great a length of time; excessive agitation mixes again the *fecula* with the water; from which it does not separate any more, and the tub fails.—In this case, instead of indigo, we only obtain muddy water.

This latter inconvenience may easily be obviated, by a little attention: when we have discovered that the *fecula* is sufficiently united, draw off the water from the *batterie* into

a third, and smaller bason, which is termed the *diablotin*. We then find the bottom of the *batterie* covered with a very liquid blue paste; this is received into bags of coarse linen cloth, of the form of inverted cones, which suffer the watery parts to run off. These bags are afterwards emptied of their contents upon tables in the drying rooms, where this blue paste is kneaded, and after it has acquired a denser consistence, it is spread out and cut into small squares, in order that it may dry the sooner. The manufacture of the indigo is now completed, and it is soon sufficiently dry for sale.

Experience has shewn that this process has never failed of complete success; of this, more than fifteen hundred tubs of indigo, manufactured in different parts of St. Domingo, have furnished the proofs.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PUBLIC ENTRY INTO THE CITY OF PARIS OF ISABELLA QUEEN OF FRANCE. [From Mr. Johnes's Translation of Froissart. Vol. 9.]

On Sunday the 20th day of June, in the year of our Lord 1390, there were such crowds of people in Paris, it was marvellous to see them; and on this Sunday, the noble ladies of France who were to accompany the queen assembled in the afternoon at Saint Denis, with such of the nobility as were appointed to lead the litters of the queen and her attendants. The citizens of Paris, to the amount of twelve hundred, were mounted on horseback, dressed in uniforms of green and crimson, and lined each side of the road.

The queen of France, attended by the duchess of Berry, the duchess of Burgundy, the duchess of Touraine, the duchess of Lorraine, the countess of Nevers, the lady of Coucy, with a crowd of other ladies, began the procession in open litters most richly ornamented. The dutchess of Touraine was not in a litter, but to display herself the more, was mounted on a palfrey magnificently caparisoned.

The litter of the queen was led by the dukes of Touraine and Bourbon at the head; the dukes of Berry and Burgundy were at the centre, and the lord Peter de Navarre and the count d'Ostrevant behind the litter, which was open and beautifully ornamented. The duchess of Touraine followed, on her palfrey, led by the count de la Marche and the count de Nevers. After her came the dutchess of Burgundy and her daughter, the lady Margaret of Hainault, in an open litter, led by the lord Henry de Bar, and sir William, the young count de Namur. Then came the duchess of Berry, and the daughter of the lord de Coucy, in an open and ornamented litter, led by sir James de Bourbon and sir Philip d'Artois. Then the duchess of Bar and her daughter, led by sir Charles d'Albret and the lord de Coucy. There was no particular mention made of the other ladies and damsels who followed in covered chariots, or on palfreys, led by their knights. Serjeants, and others of the king's officers, had full employment, in making way for the procession, and keeping off the crowd; for there were such numbers assembled, it seemed as if all the world had come thither.

At the gate of Saint Denis, that opens into Paris, was the representation of a *starry firmament, and within it were children dressed as angels*, whose singing and chaunting was melodiously sweet.—There was also an *image of the Virgin holding in her arms a child*, who at times amused himself with a windmill, made of a large walnut. The upper part of this firmament was richly adorned with the arms of France and Bavaria, with a brilliant sun dispersing its rays through the heavens; and this sun was the king's device at the ensuing tournaments.

The queen of France and the ladies took delight in viewing this as they passed, as indeed did all who saw it. The queen then advanced slowly to the fountain, in the street of Saint Denis, which was covered and decorated with fine blue cloth, besprinkled over with golden flower de luces. The pillars that surrounded the fountain were ornamented with the arms of the chief barons of France; and, instead of water, it ran in great streams of Clairé and excellent Piement. Around this fountain were young girls handsomely dressed, having on their heads caps of solid gold, who sang so sweetly it was a pleasure to hear them; and they held in their hands cups of gold, offering their liquors to all who chose to drink. The queen stopped there to hear and look at them, as did the ladies as they passed by.

Below the monastery of the Trinity, there was a scaffold erected in the street, and on this scaffold a castle, with a *representation of the battle with king Saladin*, performed by living actors: the Christians on one side, and the Saracens on the other. All the lords of renown, who had been present, were represented with their blazoned warcoats, such as were worn in those times. A little above was the person of the king of France, surrounded by his twelve peers, in their proper arms; and when the queen came opposite the scaffold, king Richard was seen to leave his companions and advance to the king of France, to request permission to fight the Saracens, which having obtained, he returns to his army, who instantly begin the attack on Saladin and the Saracens. The battle lasted for a considerable time, and was seen with much pleasure.

The procession then passed on, and came to the second gate of Saint Denis, where, like to the first, there had been made a repre-

sentation of a richly starred firmament, *with the holy Trinity seated in great majesty, and within the heaven little children as angels* singing very melodiously.—As the queen passed under the gate, *two angels descended from above, holding an extraordinary rich golden crown, ornamented with precious stones, which they gently placed on the head of the queen,* sweetly singing the following verses:

'Dame, enclose entre fleurs de Lys,
Reine êtes vous de Paris,
De France, et de tous le païs.
Nous en r'allons en paradis.'

When they came opposite the chapel of St. James, they found a scaffold erected on the right hand, richly decorated with tapestry, surrounded with curtains, in the manner of a chamber: within which were men who played finely on organs.—The whole street of Saint Denis was covered with a canopy of rich camlet and silk cloths, as if they had had the cloths for nothing, or were at Alexandria or Damascus. I, the writer of this account, was present, and astonished whence such quantities of rich stuffs and ornaments could have come; for all the houses on each side the great street of St. Denis, as far as the Châtelet, or indeed to the great bridge, were hung with tapestries, representing various scenes and histories, to the delight of all beholders.

The queen and her ladies, conducted by great lords in their litters, arrived at length at the gate of the Châtelet, where they stopped to see other splendid pageants that had been prepared for them. At the gate of the Châtelet was erected a castle of wood, with towers, strong enough to last forty years. At each of the battlements was a knight completely armed from head to foot; and in the castle was a superb bed, as finely decorated with curtains, and every thing else, as if for the chamber of the king, and this bed was called the bed of justice, in which lay a person to represent St. Anne. On the esplanade, before the castle, (which comprehended a tolerably large space) was a warren and much brush-wood, within which were plenty of hares, rabbits and young birds, that fled out and in again for fear of the populace. From this wood, on the side near the queen, there issued a large white hart, that made for the bed of justice; from another part came forth a lion and eagle, well represented, and proudly advanced towards the stag. Then twelve young maidens, richly dressed, with chaplets of gold on their heads, came out of the wood, holding naked swords in their hands, and placed themselves between the hart, the lion and eagle, shewing that, with their swords, they were determined to defend the hart and the bed of justice.

The queen, the ladies and lords, having seen this pageant with pleasure, passed on, to the bridge of Nôtre Dame, which was decorated so handsomely, it could not be amended: it was covered with a starry canopy, of green and crimson, and the streets were all hung with tapestry as far as the church of Nôtre Dame. When the queen and her ladies had passed the bridge, and were near the church, it was late in the evening, for the procession, ever since it had set out from St. Denis, had advanced but a foot's pace.

The great bridge of Paris was hung all its length with green and white sarcenet; but before the queen and her company entered Nôtre Dame, she was presented with other pageants that delighted her and her ladies very much: I will describe them.

A full month before the queen's entry to Paris, a master-engineer from Geneva had fastened a cord to the highest tower of Nôtre Dame, which, passing high above the streets was fixed to the most elevated house on the bridge of St. Michael. As the queen was passing down the street of Nôtre Dame, this man left the tower, and, seating himself on the cord, descended singing, with two lighted torches in his hands, for it was now dark, to the great astonishment of all who saw him, how he could do it. He kept the lighted torches in his hands that he might be seen by all Paris, and even two or three leagues off. He played many tricks on the rope, and his agility was highly praised.

The bishop of Paris and his numerous clergy, clothed in their robes, were without the church of Nôtre Dame waiting for the queen, who was helped out of her litter by the four dukes of Berry, Burgundy, Touraine and Bourbon. When the other ladies had left their litters, and dismounted from their palfreys, they all entered the church in grand procession, preceded by the bishop and priests, singing aloud to the praise of God and the Virgin Mary.

The queen was conducted through the nave and choir to the great altar, where, on her knees, she made her prayers according as she thought good, and presented, as her offering, four cloths of gold and the handsome crown which the angels had put on her head at the gate of Paris, as has been related. The lord John de la Riviere and sir John le Mercier instantly brought one more rich, with which they crowned her.

This being done, the queen and her ladies returned to their litters, wherein they were seated as before; and, as it was late, there were upwards of five hundred lighted tapers attending the procession. In such array were they conducted to the palace, where the king, queen Joan, and the dutchess of Orleans, were waiting for them. The ladies here quitted their litters, and were conducted to different apartments; and the lords, after the dancing, returned to their hôtels.

In the middle of the dinner hall was erected a castle of wood, forty feet high, twenty feet long, and as many wide, with towers at each corner, and one larger in the middle. This castle was to represent the city of Troy the great, and the tower in the middle, the palace of Ilion, from which were displayed the banners of the Trojans, such as king Priam, Hector, his other sons', and of those shut up in the place with them. The castle, being on wheels, was very easily moved about. There was a pavilion likewise on wheels, on which were placed the banners of the Grecian kings: this was moved, as it were, by invisible beings, to the attack of Troy. There was also, by way of reinforcement, a large ship well built, and able to contain one hundred men at arms, that, like the two former, was ingeniously moved by invisible wheels. Those in the ship and pavilion made a sharp attack on the castle, which was gallantly defended; but, from the very great crowd, this amusement could not last long.

About twelve o'clock, forty of the principal citizens of Paris, all uniformly dressed, waited on the king at his hôtel of Saint Pol, bringing a present they had displayed through the streets of the town. Their gift was in a very richly worked litter, borne by *two strong men dressed as savages*. This litter was covered with a transparent crape of silk, through which might be seen the magnificent things it contained.

On their arrival, they advanced to the king's chamber (which was open and ready prepared to receive them, as their coming was known, and welcome is always made to those who bring gifts); and, having placed the litter on tressels in the midst of the apartment, they cast themselves on their knees, and thus spoke: 'Most beloved lord and king, your citizens of your good town of Paris present to you the plate that is contained in this litter, as tokens of their joy that you have taken the government of the kingdom into your own hands.'

'Many thanks, my good people,' replied the king: 'they are fair and rich.'

First, there were four pots of gold, four saucers to match, four golden salts, twelve cups of the same, twelve porringers, and six dishes of gold also: the whole weighed one hundred and fifty marcs.

Another party of citizens, very handsomely equipped in uniforms of cloth, waited on the queen, and presented her with a litter borne by *two men dressed, the one as a bear, the other as a unicorn*, which they placed in her chamber, and the citizens recommended their town and its inhabitants to her protection. This present consisted of the model of a ship in gold, two large flagons of gold, two comfit boxes, two salts, six cups, and as many saucers, all of gold: twelve lamps of silver, two silver basons, two dozen of silver porringers, the same number of silver cups: the whole weight of gold and silver being three hundred marcs.

A third present was carried, in like manner, to the chamber of the duchess of Touraine, by *two men representing Moors, having their faces blackened, and richly dressed with white turbans, as if they had been Saracens or Tartars*. This litter was ornamented, and covered, like the others, with gauze, and accompanied by twelve citizens in uniforms, who presented the duchess with a ship in gold, a large flagon of gold, two comfit boxes, two large dishes, and two salts, all of gold: six jugs of silver, and two dozen cups and saucers of the same: the whole weighing two hundred marcs.

All these presents, which I saw, had cost upwards of sixty thousand golden crowns.

ACCOUNT OF THE BOSCHIMANS IN AFRICA.

[By Col. Jansens, formerly Dutch Governor of the Cape.]

The Boschimans are a savage and ferocious people; small of stature, and miserable beyond conception. Each family lives separate; they unite only to defend themselves, or to plunder the Dutch peasants, the Caffres, and other nations who have property. They do not cultivate the land, and have no domestic animal but the dog. The Dutch, in hopes of settling them, and of inducing them to relinquish their predatory manner of living, presented them with some sheep; but the savages, instead of preserving them to establish a breed, killed them immediately. Their general food is locusts. Privation has taught them to endure hunger; but when they kill any game or can steal an ox, or sheep, they devour an immense quantity of meat at one meal.

They have no huts, nor domestic utensils. Their arms are small bows, and poisoned arrows, which they shoot with astonishing exactness. They have the art of composing poisons of different degrees of strength, the strongest is reserved for those arrows which they use against their enemies. Their organs of vision being constantly exercised; they can see at a much greater distance than Europeans can imagine. Smoking is their greatest delight; instead of tobacco they use a species of hemp, that exhales a strong narcotic odour. Their pipes are made of the bones of antelopes, and other animals.

Their language contains many guttural sounds, and is spoken with a kind of thrilling motion of the tongue. The articulations cannot be rendered by characters from any European alphabet. The name of Boschimans signifies "men of the *wood*;" a denomination very improper, there being no

woods in the deserts inhabited by these people. They are, in general, of very low stature, but those who rove along the banks of the Orange river are not so short, they also appear stronger, probably because that part of the country furnishes better means of subsistance.

Before his return to Europe, Col. Jansens wished to procure a young Boschiman. After a great deal of trouble he succeeded, having promised the father to treat his child well, and to send him back if he wished it. The one he has brought, belongs to a family of very low stature, his father being only four feet high. He is called *Flemings*; his age is not known; the Boschimans having no idea of measuring time. He lived two years and a half in the Colonel's house, and was brought up with his son. *Flemings* shews an intelligent mind, and a good disposition, without any thing vicious. He readily learnt the Dutch language; and by coming to Europe on board an English vessel, has learnt as much English as he could, by communicating with the sailors.

Colonel J. being at Paris, when Madame Buonaparté returned from Mayence, and having occasion to mention his little Boschiman, begged her to accept him, she consented, and he now lives in the Tuilleries. He has the mulatto complexion, with a broad nose; has an animated look, is very mild, and shews no marks of surprize at the objects around him. He performs a kind of dance, that appears to be merely an imitation of the motions of a wild beast, accompanied with deep and monotonous roarings.

FENELON'S METHOD OF CORRECTING THE IRASCIBILITY OF THE DUKE OF BURGUNDY, GRANDSON OF LOUIS XIV.

At his birth, August 6, 1682, the nation seemed to foresee how dear this prince would be to them. "I was present," says the Abbé Choisy, "at the births of Monseigneur, and of the Duke, and remarked a notable difference between joy, and the excess of it. They rejoiced at the birth of Monseigneur, but at the birth of the Duke they were almost frantic. Every person thought himself at liberty to embrace the king. The lower classes could not contain themselves, they made a bonfire in one of the courts of the palace, and threw into it part of the wainscoting and flooring intended for the grand gallery. Bontemps, in a great passion, went and told his Majesty; who burst into laughter, and said, "let them rejoice; we will get others."

As the prince grew up, he proved to be of a very irascible temper. One day after having beaten his valet-de-chambre, he stopped to look at the tools of a joiner, who was at work in his apartment. The workman having been previously instructed by Fénélon, told the prince in a brutal manner to "*go about his business!*" The prince was offended; and the joiner, at last, in a threatening tone exclaimed, "I would advise you to be off, prince, for when I am in a passion, I care for no one."—The prince ran to Fénélon, to complain of so churlish a fellow brought into his room. "He is a very good workman," said F. coldly, "his only fault is being too passionate." The prince insisted that he was a *brute*. "Hearken," said F. "you call him a *brute* because he threatens you, when you interrupt him; what would you say of a prince who beats his servant, at the moment when he is doing him a service?"

At another time, after some gust of passion, all who approached him appeared surprized, and alarmed at his appearance; they enquired about his health, with signs of uneasiness and compassion. Fagon, the physician, came and felt his pulse, and after appearing to meditate deeply on the nature of his disorder, said, "confess the truth, prince, have you not been giving way to some paroxism of anger?" "You have guessed it," replied the Duke, "but will that make one ill?" Then Fagon began to explain the physical effects of anger, which sometimes ended in sudden death; and quoted examples of persons who died in fits of passion.

That self controul which was necessary for a Prince born to govern others, is equally necessary for private individuals, to whom it is of the utmost importance to govern themselves. Those improprieties in our conduct of which we may be even convinced, are so palliated by the perverse logic of the heart and affections, that we much sooner forget them, than the same, or smaller, transgressions in others: because we have no such advocate for them in our bosoms. This reminiscence is in proportion to the smaller affection which we bear to the world at large, and the greater which we bear to ourselves; in other words, it is in the ratio of our general charity to our self-love.

Nevertheless, great care is required in infancy, and it is extremely necessary to be cautious that we do not plunge children into one fault, by correcting them for others. It had been frequently mentioned to the Duke, that he should learn to suffer with firmness; and that crying was a sign of weakness. From that moment he formed a resolution of never crying again; but without distinguishing the case or the cause. One day the funeral oration on the Dauphiness his mother was read to him; he did not weep, but his sensibility was so much excited, that he fell down almost lifeless. When it was explained to him that tears on such an occasion would have been a *mark of tenderness* he wept bitterly.

ORIGINAL RUSSIAN ANECDOTES.

The Russian soldiers, the worst maintained of all troops, could not subsist in places where pillage is prohibited, if they had not a particular resource which other troops have not. In the different regiments, there is a fund called *Artel*, into which every recruit, on joining his corps, puts the little money he may have; and the value of his old clothes, when he receives his uniform. The small property of a brother soldier who dies, or is killed, is added to the common stock. In time of war, the produce of their plunderings, which every member very conscientiously brings to the fund, increases it sometimes to a considerable amount. This fund is entrusted to old corporals, who are chosen by the soldiers.

A Russian soldier, being enlisted for life, is accustomed to place all his hopes on that fund, which can relieve him. On a march, and on all extraordinary occasions, he has recourse to the *artel*: either to buy a horse for the baggage, or to procure provisions, or liquors; for the government allowance is only so much rye flour, barley and salt per month. Of these the soldier makes bread and biscuit, or a kind of broth, which he is happy if he can sometimes season with flax oil, a piece of fat, or an onion: he does more, with a little fermented flour, or the remnants of his biscuit, he makes a beverage that he prefers to pure water, but which is detestable to a palate unaccustomed to it.

When a soldier is in quarters, he gives his rations to the peasant who lodges him, and eats at his table. When he is encamped in the deserts, if he can catch any game, he sells or gives it to his officers, sooner than eat it himself. He is in general very sober; and never sleeps on a bed, even when he is ill.

Each regiment has its priest, and a portable chapel, which is generally a very large tent, remarkable for its elegance. A Russian priest cannot exercise his functions without being married; and, when his wife dies, he is obliged to turn monk. They take St. Paul's injunction literally, that "a bishop should be the husband of one wife;" consequently, they are prohibited from second wedlock.

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Whether it be an ancient tradition, or a more modern prejudice, the Russians generally believe in a particular deity, and often exclaim, when speaking of their victories, or of their happiness, "it is *our* God! it is the Russian God!" Suworrow, more than any other person, was thus credulous; and endeavoured to propagate the idea.

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At the battle of Zurich, Major Herms, who had the command of the Russian military chest, containing 60,000 Dutch ducats, and 30,00 florins (about £60,000), was ordered into the rear of the army, with eighty chasseurs as an escort. Finding, about noon, that the Russians were retreating, he was alarmed, and ran to General Korsakow, to request an order to station the chest in a place of safety. "I will give you the order in time;" replied the general, "return to your post." He was scarcely returned, before a French detachment fell on his escort, and seized the chest. The major delivered his sword, to a Frenchman who spoke German, and begged to be conducted to head-quarters. "No, Sir," replied the soldier, "you shall go on foot, and the waggon shall remain here; for, if we take it to head-quarters, it will be appropriated to the nation, when by leaving it on the field of battle, it is ours." Herms then was sent off, and the French began to stave the casks, and fill their pockets. While they were engaged in this lucrative occupation, a party of Cossacks and Russians surprised them, killed or dispersed them, and seized the remainder of the rich plunder, with which they made off when other troops appeared. A Frenchman who was caught by the Cossacks, at the moment when he had his head and arms in a cask, received a severe wound in the only part exposed to the enemy by that singular posture. He consoled himself for the accident; because the Russians when they dragged him away from the cask, thinking that he was killed, had not time to rifle his pockets, which were well lined, and furnished him with ample means for an agreeable convalescence.

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We cannot omit mentioning the great negligence of the Russians in regard to their wounded. Their surgeons are mostly barbers. A blunt knife is very often the only instrument they use to cut out a ball, or amputate a broken limb. If the wounded soldier has neither handkerchief, nor sash, nor linen to bind up the wound, he dies, through loss of blood. Potemkin, in the Turkish war, had a French surgeon whom he appointed inspector of the military hospitals. Before the attack on Otschakow, finding that the chests were without medicines, and the surgeons without instruments, he complained to the prince, and begged that immediate orders might be given for procuring the most necessary articles, and particularly lint. Potemkin laughed at his zeal, and begged him to be quiet; for they would want for nothing, for the wounded. The next day, the attack was made, and in half an hour 1800 wounded lay in heaps, in the camp; and numbers died, through neglect, and the severity of the weather. There is no country where we meet

with fewer mutilated soldiers than in Russia: all those who are dangerously wounded generally die.

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In one of the engagements in Holland, an ensign was wounded and fell while defending his colours. After recovering himself, his first wish was to conceal them from the enemy. He tore them in pieces and hid them in his bosom. Being taken from the field as a prisoner, he preciously preserved the signal of honour entrusted to his valour, and carried it back to Russia. When Paul, recovering a little from the passion excited by the defeat of his army, was informed of the action, he reinstated the brave officer in his rank, which he had lost as well as all the other prisoners.

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The Russian language, notwithstanding its richness and original beauties, savours very singularly of the servitude of the people who use it. A Russian slave, when speaking of his master, of the Emperor, of of any other superior, says; "He has the goodness to eat, or to sleep; he has the complaisance to speak, to think, &c." He dares not even employ the same word to express the same thing, when it relates to his lord. *Potschiwat* and *kouchit* signify *to eat* and *to sleep*, for the master; *ssjat* and *iest* express the same things, for the slave. It is the same with the Germans; when speaking of men or animals, they have different expressions.

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The Russians are unfortunately slaves, in the most simple and clearest signification of the term, which it is so disgraceful to apply to men. What is a slave? It is a man who belongs to another man. If this definition be admitted, the Russian is doubly a slave. In the first place, he, his wife and children, belong to his lord, who can dispose of them as he pleases, can sell them, beat them, can suffer them to die with hunger, and even kill them, under certain precautions. Again, he, as well as his master, belongs to the Emperor; who can dispose of them without any restrictions. Custom, prejudices, interest, and generosity on the part of the master and the sovereign, can alone humanize, in some degree, this unlimited slavery.

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The Russian artillerymen and bombardiers, when they enter into the artillery, take an oath with imprecations on their body and soul, not to abandon the guns entrusted to them. They kept this dreadful oath at the battle of Frankfort, where many of them were stabbed by the Prussians while clinging round the cannon. They kept it likewise at the battle of Zurich, where not one battery was forsaken; the men were all killed at their posts, in spite of the orders of their officer.

THE BIRCH TREE.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

SIR,——The public have no doubt been very much gratified by the entertaining accounts of various trees in your interesting miscellany. The Deities of the Heathen Mythology, are said to have taken particular trees under their protection, thus,

"The Oak was the prince and the pride of the grove,
An emblem of power, and the favorite of Jove.
While Bacchus' delights were the Ivy and Vine,
And Venus her brows did with Myrtle entwine."

No country in general, I believe, produces finer *Birches* than our dear little island; and though they cannot boast of the poisonous quality of the Upas, nor of the early vegetation of the Cadenham Oak, and Glastonbury Thorn, yet in the eyes of the preceptor they claim far more valuable and peculiar qualities. In what these consist, the following lines inform us;

——The Muses declare, after diligent search,
No tree can be found to compare with the Birch;
The Birch, they aver, is the true tree of knowledge,
Rever'd by each school, and remember'd at college.
The Birch, on each bough, on the top of each switch,
Bears the essence of grammar, the eight parts of speech.
'Mong the leaves is conceal'd more than mem'ry can mention,
All cases, all genders, all forms of declension.
Nine branches when crop'd by the hands of the NINE,
Each duly arrang'd in a parallel line,
Tied up in nine folds of a mystical string,
And soak'd for nine hours in cold Helicon's spring,
Is a Sceptre compos'd for a Pedagogue's hand,
Like the *Fasces* of Rome—a true badge of command.
Like the *Virga divina*, 'twill find out the vein
Where lurks the rich metal—the gold of the brain.
As the fam'd rod of Circe to brutes could change men,
So the twigs of the Birch can unbrute them again;
Like the rod of the Sybil, that branch of pure gold,
The twigs can the gates of Elysium unfold:
That Elysium of learning where pleasures abound;
Those fruits which still flourish in classical ground.

Such, Mr. Editor, are the magical effects of this valuable tree, as sung by the worthy Vicar of Clithorow. We have all, no doubt, *felt* its energetic and invigorating power, and may be induced to exclaim with the Doctor,

"Then if such be its virtues, we'll bow to the tree,
And *Birch*, like the Muses, immortal shall be."

Yours,

AN ADMIRER OF TREES.

P. S. Can any of your correspondents inform me whether the Birch was used among the Greeks and Romans, in the correction of youth? .....

We remit the question proposed by our respected correspondent to friends who have more leisure than we have to consult their classics, yet being desirous of shewing honour to a tree, the very twigs of which are entitled to veneration, we venture a few slight hints on the *awful* subject.

That scholars were *beaten* at school, among the ancients, may be inferred from the epithet *plagosum* which Horace gives to his master *Orbilius*: "*flogging* Orbilius," Ep. ii. 170: —as well as from what we read in Martial X. Ep. 62. in Ausonius, *Protrept. ad Nep.* in Prudentius, *Carm.* ix. 2086 *et al.* But whether *birchen* twigs were used for this purpose is not so clear.

Horace I. Sat. iii. 1119, 120. mentions three different kinds of castigatory implements: Martial happily enough calls them *sceptra pædagogorum*.

Ne *scutica* dignum horribili sectere *flagello*.
Nam ut *ferula* cædas meritum majora jubire
Verbera, non vereor; ———

"Lest any one should suffer punishment by the horrible whip made of leathern *thongs*,—scutica; when he only deserves the much lighter scourge made of *twigs*—flagellum. For I am not afraid that you should correct with the slender *stick*,—ferula, one that deserves to suffer severer stripes. Ausonius enumerates also the *rod* or *wand*: l. c. v. 30.

Quod sceptrum vibrat *ferulæ*, quod multa supellex
Virgea; quod fallax *scuticam* prætexat aluta.

Some think, that the *rod*, virga, was used chiefly, or wholly, by the Greeks; for Plato de L. L. iii. informs us that the Greeks chastised their children ῥάβδοις with the rod, wand, or staff, and it is certain that the Portian law forbad the beating of any free Roman with a rod, as Cicero observes, Orat. x. xviii. from whence it may be deduced, that this instrument was not employed in correcting the Roman youth. Epiphanius, Haer. 33. describing the punishments applicable to various ages of life, says, "a child is corrected with the finger; a boy with the hand; a mere youngster with the lash; a young man with a rod; but a man who may be guilty of crimes, these being of an atrocious nature, he is punished with the sword, according to the law." It appears too, that punishments varied with the condition of the party to be punished: that slaves, and freemen, were not beaten with the same instruments, nor in the same parts of the person. Catullus, *in Thal.* 10. mentions the customs of beating boys *in the hand*: or on the shoulder: so Ovid, Am. i. 13, 17.

Tu pueros somno fraudus tradisque magistris
Ut subeant teneræ verbera sæva *manus*.

But, we are certain that punishment extended to the posteriors also: Vossius in his Etymology of *Catomum*, has not forgot this particular: and Gonzales, on Petronius, cap. 132, explains the terms to mean, what in our youthful days was called at school "a *horsing*;" "Catomo *suspendi, ac verberari*,—quod fieri solet a ludimagistris, quum in puerorum nates verbera infligunt, *cervici* alicujus ipsis *appensis pueris*." He observes also, that *catomisein* in Hippocrates signifies *in humeros aliquem levare*, which is an exact description of a *horsing*, if we may trust our memory on this *tender* subject. The same idea is implied in the term, when used in the Martyrdom of Saint Vitus; *jussit infantem catomo cædi*, which corresponds with what Prudentius says, H. x. 696.

Vix hæc profatus, pusionem præcipit,
Sublime tollant, et manu pulsent *nates*;
Mox et remota veste *virgis* verberent,
Tenerumque duris ictibus tergum secent.

The Romans, however, did not strip those who were to receive punishment; or, at most those whose transgressions had been notorious, and in some degree infamous. And they more usually inflicted stripes on the shoulders than on any other part.

Great, most assuredly, to minds deeply imbued with classic lore, is the gratification of knowing that the methods of scholastic correction which modern times have adopted, are derived from antiquity, and have authority either Greek or Roman for their practice. This consideration, with a due share of patience, and an adequate conviction of necessity, may tend to support sufferers under their affliction, and to moderate both shame and smart: while it ennobles in the hands of erudition practices which the vulgar have too often libelled as irregular, indecent and insufficient, though an insult upon feeling. Great, most assuredly, was the modern improvement which added the Birch to the implements of correction: it is unquestionably a principal

among those causes which contribute to the superiority of the moderns over the ancients, in useful and valuable knowledge. *They* were unacquainted with the powers of this tree, and its capabilities of infusing learning; *we* are happily enabled to congratulate ourselves on living in the most enlightened age that ever the world beheld, and to what are we indebted for this distinction if not to the birch? A statue of gold is too little honour to him who first adopted this admirable instrument; to him who invented it, combined its parts, and formed it into its present beautiful symmetry, the sanction of nations should decree a festival, and his memory should be held in everlasting renown. The introduction and establishment of the birchen sceptre should have formed an era in the history of discipline, and the republic of letters should have dated its *arrêtés* from this period. Never will the rulers of that republic forget or forego the application of this token of their authority; the discovery once made is too valuable, too admirable to be forgot: and hence we foresee a long perspective of advantages to future ages and succeeding generations—advantages not to be described, if *bottomed*—advantages both *posteri* and *posteriori*.

ANCIENT GAME AT GENSANO: FESTIVAL, &c. IN SICILY.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

Sir,—As you have favoured the public, in some of your early numbers, under the head of COLLECTANEA, with accounts of ancient customs, &c. perhaps your correspondents may give you pleasure by communicating others which they have met with, whether in their travels, or in the course of their reading. Under this idea, I offer the two following: the first is an ancient game annually celebrated at Gensano, in the Roman state; the other I was an eye-witness to, some years ago, in Sicily.

In the principal street of Gensano is annually performed an exercise, entitled *il Saraceno*. This takes place on the anniversary of their tutelar saint, and follows a race of Barbary horses. A long space of ground is enclosed by pales, ornamented with branches of trees; at one extremity is a figure, representing a Moor in armour, with a sprig of laurel in his hand, and a silver star on his forehead. The magistrates place themselves on a scaffold, erected for the purpose, and adorned with crimson damask, fringed with gold. They sit as judges of the game.

Young men on horseback, each attended by a running footman, holding his master's lance, enter the lists, and, after making their obeisance to the magistrates and spectators, run full speed at the Moor's head: he, whose lance strikes the star, or comes nearest to it, gains the prize, which is a silver knife, fork, and spoon, tied with red ribbands. This game was introduced by the Saracens, and is practised in other parts of Italy. It gives some idea of the warlike amusements of the Arabs. I have seen the game of the *jerrid*, or spear, in Egypt, which is somewhat similar; only that there the Arabs and Mamelukes galloped through an archway, and endeavoured to lodge their *jerrids* in a hole in the wall, as they passed.

I come now to the Sicilian *festival* of the decapitation of the great Apostle of the Gentiles, which was celebrated at Palazzolo. On the vigil of the festival, the church was beautifully illuminated, and the figure of St. Paul was presented to the people, whose enthusiasm and distortions of countenance were indescribable. *Viva San Paulo!* with the clashing of bells, resounded every moment through the church. The commotion was terrible; every one strained his lungs to the utmost; conceiving that the louder he bawled, the more spiritual fervour he expressed, becoming at the same time, the greater favourite of his patron saint. On the morrow, at break of day, a colossal statue of St. Paul, not badly carved in wood, and fresh gilt, was paraded through the streets with all the honours of a newly-elected member, every one striving to share the glory of chairing the precious idol.

All this, however, was but a prelude to the *grandissima processione*, in the evening, which consisted of a band of music; boys dressed *à la Turque*; the high priest most sumptuously apparelled, accompanied by bishops; horsemen in various dresses, two and two; the scribe on foot carrying a sword and book; guards preceding the mighty Nero (personated by a painter from Rome), whose visage pourtrayed every passion requisite to discharge his august office with dignity. He held a sceptre in his hand. Some prisoners preceded poor St. Paul with a rope round his neck, led by two blacks, having swords in their hands. He mounted the scaffold with great solemnity; Nero signed the fatal warrant; and the hangman apparently stabbed him to the heart, that is to say, he had concealed under his shirt a leathern bottle, full of wine, which poured down in torrents. He was then dragged to the block (a species of guillotine), and at one blow a false head jumped into the air, and was afterwards shewn to the multitude amidst peals of *Viva San Paulo!* In the true spirit of the drama, the fictitious saint afterwards walked through the crowd, deluged with imaginary blood; and the emperor, bishops, &c. having played their mimic parts, returned to their humble situations of tailors, bricklayers, &c. We were asked if it was not very *natural?* and

the hangman enquired, whether we beheaded christians *that way* in England.

I shall leave your readers, Mr. Editor, to make their comments on such strange scenes; acted in a Christian country, and dignified with the sacred garb of religion.—Yours, &c.

VIATOR.

ON THE ORIGIN OF PLACING HOLLY IN CHURCHES.

The great Newton, in his dissertations on prophecy, says, "Gregory Nyssen tells us, that after the persecution of the Emperor Decius, Gregory, bishop of Neocesarea in Pontus, instituted, that festival days should be celebrated to them who had contended for the faith, that is, to the martyrs." And Nyssen adds this reason for the institution, viz. "When he (Gregory) observed that the simple and unskilful multitudes by reason of corporeal delights remained in the error of idols; that the principal thing might be corrected among them, namely, that instead of this vain worship, they might turn their eyes upon God, he permitted, that, at the memories of the holy martyrs, they might make merry, delight themselves, and be dissolved into joy. The heathens were delighted with the festivals of their gods, and unwilling to part with those delights; and therefore Gregory to facilitate their conversion, instituted annual festivals to saints and martyrs. Hence it came to pass, that for exploding the festivals of the heathens, the principal festivals of the christians succeeded in their room; as the keeping of Christmas with ivy, and feasting, in the room of the Bacchanalia and Saturnalia.

It is remarkable that although several other superstitious customs of a heathenish and popish origin are declining, yet the practice of exhibiting the symbols or emblems of Bacchus at our festival of Christmas, is still generally observed. Our elderly females are yet extremely zealous in keeping up the custom of decorating the house with evergreens; and we remember hearing one of these good matrons lament that the introduction of sash-windows would in time destroy this holy custom; after which, the church itself would be in great danger!

We are much obliged to a correspondent, who has favoured us with this transcript from a provincial publication: it connects in some degree with our enquiry, why this island kept its sacred festivities at Christmas, rather than at the Carnival, with the Continent? But, we are of opinion that a distinct, independent, and much more remote origin, may be suggested, as that from which this custom is derived. There are, in fact, many practices still extant, that may safely be attributed to our druidical ancestors. We ourselves have seen the *Baal-tein*, or fire in honour (originally) of Baal, lighted in the North. Many other remains of extremely ancient *sentiments*, in expressions, sayings, proverbs, and *observations*, as well in words as by actions, are not wholly beyond the recognizance of those versed in antiquity. The manners, too, of some of our counties remote from much passage, their recollections and traditionary sentiments, are derived, more or less immediately, from those which were current many ages ago.

This inquiry deserves more leisure than we can possibly command.

WHITE NEGRO, AND A PIEBALD NEGRESS.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

SIR,—having seen in your third volume, (p. 803), the letter from A NATURALIST respecting Mrs. Newsham, the White Negro Woman, and thinking that the following subjects may claim his attention as phœnomena in the human race equally interesting, I have taken the liberty of transcribing them for your valuable work, from Dr. Pinckard's notes on the West Indies.

The white negro is a boy of about 12 years of age, who was born on board of ship, on the passage from Guinea, of perfectly white skin, although both his father and mother were jet black. He is even *whiter*, but I know not if I should say *fairer*, than Europeans, for it is a dead chalk-white (such appears to have been the complexion of Mrs. N.), without the agreeable relief of the fine blue veins, and ruddy tints of a British skin. In form and feature he strictly resembles other negroes. His eyes are blue, the eyebrows and eye-lashes white, as is likewise the hair, which from being slightly tinged with yellow, assumes, in a small degree, that particular hue, which is, more commonly, than correctly, termed *red*. On looking at a strong light, his eyes are affected with a twinkling motion, such as is observed in the *albinos*, or *nyctalops*; and from the axes of the two eyes not accurately converging, a slight degree of *strabismus* is perceptible. His skin is more than commonly irritable, and quickly rises into blisters, on his being exposed to the open rays of the sun.

The case of the woman is even more novel and singular; her peculiarity being the effect of an extraordinary change, and not of original conformation. She is about thirty years of age and, until the last six or seven years, was of a completely sable skin, differing in no respect from other negroes; but, from the profoundest black, her surface is growing perfectly white. This uncommon change commenced in the parts most remote from

the centre of circulation, and is slowly though regularly, proceeding towards the parts nearer to the heart.—The feet, hands, legs, and arms, are now even whiter than those of an European. Her body yet remains profoundly black; her hair and eyes also retain their original hue, and have not yet any appearance of participating in the change.

It is remarkable, that the cuticle of the parts which have grown white, like the pale skin of the boy, is very subject to rise into blisters on being exposed to the sun; while no such effect is produced on the parts which remain black.

The woman is still in good health, and appears to remain entirely free from disease; but she is extremely low and dejected concerning this event, which she regards as the greatest evil that could have befallen her. She is the wife of one of Mr. Cuming's slaves (at Demarara), and has had several children, who differed in no respect from the offspring of other negroes. The boy is the property of the same gentleman.—Yours, &c. C. W.

To these instances we might add that of the parti-coloured, or piebald Negro who for some years was shewn as a sight, in various parts of England; and who long attended Mr. Pidcock's Menagerie, at Exeter 'Change. We remember to have had occasion to examine this subject with attention, while he was in that service; and were informed that he was, when young, as entirely black as negroes in general. The white spots were very distinct, and as it were, *separate* from the black around them: they were in a state of gradual extension, and observed no particular shape or form, in their progress. They occurred in parts where the hair grew, as well as in others free from hair. The party was not sensible of any sickness or disease, but appeared to enjoy good health. We speak on the recollection of many years, and do not know whether this subject be now living.

COMPARISON OF MONKISH SECLUSION FROM THE WORLD IN PILLAR TOWERS, WITH MODERN INSTANCES FOR PAY.

Mr. King, in his *Munimenta Antiqua*, reviewed Panorama, Vol. III. p. 115, after having examined with attention, the prisons for refractory monks, which are still extant in Worcester Cathedral, the Temple Church, London, and elsewhere, proceeds to investigate the origin and use of those pillar towers which are found in Ireland and Scotland. He thinks they may have answered two purposes. 1. that of voluntary retirement, the effect of superstition and ill-directed zeal; 2. that of *imprisoning penitents*, in a forced retirement, in order to reduce transgressors to reason and conformity. A third purpose is suggested, that of surveying the adjacencies, and giving notice of events in the neighbourhood. This might be, no doubt, occasionally, their use; but, as they are not always so placed as to command a view of the country, this cannot have been their original intention; not to say, that usually the steeples of the churches with which these towers appear to have been in connection, though not adjoining, would have answered the purpose much better.

Considering them as places of voluntary retirement, we are at no loss to account for their still retaining the names of those who last inhabited them, possibly for many years. "There are among the ruins of the churches at *Clonmacnois*, in King's county, two towers, one called *O'Rourke's Tower*; the other *Mc. Carthy's* tower. The first is sixty two feet high, and fifty-six in circumference, internal diameter about twelve feet; the other is fifty-six feet high, and about seven feet, internal diameter. The Irish name for these towers, *Cloch-aincoire*, is said to mean the *stone of the anchorite*. Some of this kind of towers were erected between A. D. 900, and A. D. 1000."

By means of these towers Mr. K. elucidates the history of Symeon *Stylites*, or *pillar* Symeon, who about A. D. 380 "was of great fame and renowne for a godly man; he was the first that taught to dwell in a pillar; and made therein his lodging, scarce two cubits wide.—This *Symeon* being in the flesh, imitated in life the trade of the angelical powers; withdrew himself from worldly affairs; forced nature, which of herself leaneth downwards, and followed after loftie things; being placed, as it were, in the midst between heaven and earth. He sought conference with God, he praised him, together with the angels; he lifted the prayers of men up from the earth unto heaven, and offered them to God.—He brought the goodness of God from heaven to earth, and made the world partaker thereof.—Ten years *Symeon* lived in a very narrow room; seaven in a somewhat straiter pillar;—and thirty years in a pillar of forty cubits." Miracles followed of course, on a life so *very* sanctified. "It is likely," says Mr. K. "that Symeon built his own pillar; which he raised to a greater height, with his own hands. His pillar stood near a church. He employed himself, at times, in teaching, of admonition, when, probably, he stood at the door of his pillar, and gave answers to such as applied to him." This is a far more rational description than that of Gibbon, who supposes that Symeon stood on the top of a *solid* pillar, without any checks to prevent his falling: "habit and exercise," says he, instructed him to maintain his dangerous situation without fear, or giddiness, and suc-

cessively to assume the different postures of devotion.—He sometimes prayed in an erect attitude, with his out-stretched arms, in the figure of a cross; but his most familiar practice was that of bending his meagre skeleton from the forehead to the feet: and a curious spectator, after numbering twelve hundred and forty four repetitions, at length desisted from the endless account." This on a naked solid pillar, is wonderful enough: but on Mr. K's hypothesis of a hollow pillar, the wonder is reduced within the bounds of credibility. In fact, the story of Simeon is less wonderful than instances which might be selected of more than equal seclusion, among ourselves. Should any moon-struck fanatic fix his residence in the Monument at London, or should the keeper of that edifice bring himself to the determination of never quitting it, he would, abating all ideas of sanctity, rival the retirement of Simeon Stylites. A still more striking instance of separation from mankind occurs in those who have the charge of Eddystone lighthouse, which is not only a hollow pillar of a few feet internal diameter, but is surrounded by the watery expanse, and exposed to all the dangers of storms and tempests, more than ten miles from land; inaccessible when the wind blows, with violence; while the sea beats against it in billows threatening to overwhelm it, and cover it with their foamy spray that rises more than two hundred feet above it, shaking it as they batter its sides;—Yet here dwell, by choice and for pay, two keepers, who might be thought exiles from among men; here, without company, for they interchange no sentiments; without amusement, for visitors they have none; void of gratification for body or mind, they pass their days, their weeks, their months, their years; of what simple materials is their journal composed! Their time of day is distinguished only by the rising or the setting sun, by the time to light the lamps, or the time to extinguish them. Are not these more than counterparts to the widely-famous Simeon Stylites? What have they to break the monotony of their lives? Neither the renown of sanctitude, nor the applause of gaping crowds attend them; they interfere with no concerns either spiritual or temporal; yet Smeaton tells us that they discover no symptoms of unhappiness, and are so little fatigued by their dangerous imprisonment, that they prolong their sojournings in this strait inclosure from year to year.

A pillar in the sea is, to say the least, in a more dangerous situation, than a pillar on land: it is accessible only in moderate weather; and in case of accident or distress, as in a storm, or a conflagration, by which preceding structures of the same description had been destroyed. When assistance is most wanted, it is least to be received.

RECIPES IN PAINTING.

The following recipes were found among the papers of an amateur, they may be of importance to practical men, or they may suggest a hint, to those who consider the useful arts as capable of making further progress.

Substitute for Oil Paint.

Take fresh curds and bruise them on a grinding stone, or in an earthen pan or mortar with a spatula. Put them in a pot with an equal quantity of lime well quenched, and become thick enough to be kneaded: stir this mixture well, without adding water till it produces a white coloured fluid; with this (which must be used immediately, as it becomes too thick by standing) Oker, Armenian Bole, and all colours which hold with lime may be mixed.—It dries so rapidly that two coats may be laid on the same day: It has no smell, is durable, and will receive, by means of rubbing with a woollen cloth, or other proper substance, a high polish.

To prevent White Paint from turning Black in the Sun.

Dissolve in a tin kettle, one pound of white vitriol in about six pounds of boiling water: add to it two ounces of zinc reduced to small grains: let the whole boil together half an hour, or even an hour.—A brownish earth will then appear in the fluid, which becomes very brittle, and must, at the expiration of the time indicated for boiling, be separated from the mass of liquid by filtration.—On this clear ley, after having first thinned it with an equal quantity of pump-water, pour the ley of pot-ashes, till no more precipitation or muddiness appears, and let the vessel stand still, for the fine white earth to settle.—Then pour off the ley, and cover it once or twice with water, till no saltish taste remains in it.—The white earth is then spread over a piece of canvas till all the fluids are drained off, and until it dries.—This substance being properly mixed with the white paint, will preserve its lustre, however much or long it may be exposed to the sun.

Another Paint composed without using White Lead.

Skimmed milk a pint, fresh slaked lime one ounce and half or rather more, oil of carraways, or linseed, or nut, one ounce, Spanish white (whiting) twelve ounces.—*Oil of Carraways for its Whiteness is preferred.*

Add for outside work, of slacked lime, oil, white burgundy pitch, of each half an ounce, melt the pitch in the oil with a gentle heat,

PRESENT STATE OF RELIGION IN THE LOW COUNTRIES.

THE people of Flanders, and the ancient province of Hainault, have been celebrated for ages back for their scrupulous attachment to the catholic church; and have not allowed protestants to appear publicly within their borders, unless they were countenanced by an imperial decree.

There are no protestants in the department of Jemmappes (Hainault), except what reside in the neighbourhood of the coal-pits. There they are pretty numerous. In all the principal towns, where they are in great numbers, societies have been formed. The number necessary, in order to ground a demand on the state, is five thousand souls, who are not required to reside in the same place: if contiguous villages, or towns, unite, they may have a preacher among them, and a building is given from the churches, or chapels, that were suppressed at the revolution. None are permitted to hold that office in the protestant church of France, but those who are educated at Geneva: the salary is 1200 livres *per annum*. A number of these societies united compose a Synod; and all the Synods are under the supreme direction of the general consistory at Paris.

The regulation of the catholic church is precisely the same. No step whatever can be taken by the bishop, or even by the general council, without the approbation of Bonaparte, *not even a curate appointed*. There is at present a greater want of catholic, than of protestant, clergy. Since the *Concordat*, the salaries have not been generally paid by the state; but have been regularly in arrears, and often not paid at all. It has been said with confidence, that the Emperor finds the burden of the priests so heavy, and his demands of a military nature so much more important, that he has it in serious contemplation to re-establish the tythes, and so get rid of it altogether. The present servants of the altar have but poor prospects of worldly gain, and a very small *quantum* in actual possession. Many of them go through a whole service for twenty-pence, and often are not paid at all. Every exertion, indeed, is made by the priests to recover the splendour of their religious services. A few silver saints have been cast, and some new laced petticoats have been put on the Virgin; the altars have been decorated afresh; all the relics and images have been collected from the wreck of the revolution, and the old processions instituted anew, in those towns where no protestants assemble to worship.

Agreeably to the old order of things, they eagerly embrace every pretence that their religion offers to gaiety. They fail not to commemorate the day sacred to the saint who presides over their street, or their alley; dress up an altar to his name, and invite their friends to partake of their merriment. Men are stationed with bags, to collect money of passengers in the name of St. Peter, or St. Paul, and it is spent in the pot-house, or upon a neighbouring green. It is certain, that no kind of veneration now attaches to the sovereign Pontiff.

The practice of confession, often affords an opportunity for the discovery of irregularities and thefts; things stolen are often retrieved by the threat of ecclesiastical censure, and of the divine displeasure.—The main body of the catholics have *never seen the bible!* It is the principle of their teachers, that they cannot understand its contents; and that the only portion necessary for their information is the historical part. They have, therefore, a "history of the bible," which they put into the hands of all their young people. In this are contained the lives and characters of its heroes and saints, with the comments of the fathers upon them. The protestants do not appear to have any particular want of bibles; or, if they have, it is their own fault, as they are to be had from Switzerland, or Holland.

The prayers of the church of Rome are said by the priests in latin; but it is customary for the people to have a prayer-book, with latin on one side, and French or Flemish on the other; and they repeat in their own language, while the priest repeats in latin. Once on the sunday, and sometimes twice, a sermon is delivered, in the language of the country; but it is not deemed so much a duty to attend the instructions of the pulpit, as to join in the service of the altar.

No convents are allowed, at present. Many of the priests and nuns, whose qualifications to educate youth have appeared satisfactory to the prefects, have had convents given to them free of rent, on the promise of teaching a number of poor children *gratis*. At the dissolution of the convents, pensions were appointed to the monks and nuns; they were allowed from two to five hundred livres, but these have been generally ill paid, or *not paid at all*.

It may not be amiss to mention, as connected with the affairs of religion, the charitable institutions. These have been organized anew since the reign of Buonaparté, and are now on a most respectable footing. The hospitals are large, and well supported; one for the civil, and another for the military department, in every principal town. In some places these are united in an old abbey, or other large range of buildings. The orders of nuns, also, still exist, whose occupation was the benevolent office of nursing the sick. There are also some institutions revived, for the maintenance of the old and infirm, as

well as for the diseased in mind. In every department is an orphan school for poor children. In that of Mons there are never less than five hundred, and often many, more where they are brought up in industry, taught to read and write, and placed out as apprentices to that working trade which they prefer.

There are also foundling hospitals. At Mons there are nearly a thousand children in the hospital; and the number of these hospitals being considerable, they must give a large accession of physical strength to the republic. There is also in each town a public workhouse. All kinds of works are carried on there, and a good dinner of soup and bread is provided. The poor who live in the town, may go there for their work and their loaf, and return in the evening to their houses, with the money they have gained. All who can work are employed; and the little ones are put into a room together, where they are attended by the aged, who are past labour.

From Worsley's State of France.

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We would add to the information contained in the foregoing extract, that the *Sœurs de la Charité*, whose profession leads them to attend on the sick, have *lately* received considerable encouragement, from the policy of Buonaparté. They are no longer to be under the controul of the supervisors of hospital establishments, *like servants*; nor to be obliged to *sit at the same table with the servants*, at if they were servants to such institutions. They are to be allowed to possess establishments of their own; with administrators of their own property: and they are to be at liberty to form regulations for their own conduct. They have also obtained a few houses as settlements; and appear to be greatly favoured; but not, if our conceptions be correct, beyond their deserts. They endured both sufferings and contumely during the madness of the revolution, with constancy; and proved themselves to be, even beyond their power, the friends of the destitute, and the support of the afflicted, in defiance of danger.

The number of foundlings in France, is a distressing consideration to morals; and the accession of physical strength which they afford to the republic, is a nullity; as the proportion of deaths exceeds that of those who live to maturity. Had they been born in wedlock, this proportion would have been decidedly reversed.

We have already stated the low salaries of the clergy under the French government. Compare Panorama, Vol. II. p. 1061. If their salaries be ill-paid, as well as scanty, there can be no wonder if, among a people so frivolous as the French, religion itself should suffer very seriously.

THE GATHERER.

No. II.

I am but a *Gatherer* and disposer of other men's stuff.—WOTTON.

Hyde Park.

Certainly Time is the ruler of all things, as is shewn in his changing of them, and their accompaniments. The newspapers are constant in their information that the ring in Hyde Park, the walks, &c. were on such a day "crowded with all the beauty and fashion of the metropolis." Would it be thought that this rendezvous of the gay world was formerly so unpolite as to demand a fee from every person whom it admitted? Yet we have the authority of a small manual, entitled "a character of England, as it was lately presented in a Letter to a Noble Man of France," London, 1659, for affirming this: the author, a Frenchman, in London, says,

I did frequently in the spring, accompany my Lord N. into a field near the Town, which they call Hide-Parke; the place not unpleasant, and which they use, as our Course; but with nothing that order, equipage and splendor, being such an assembly of wretched jades, and Hackney Coaches, as next a Regiment of Carremen, there is nothing approaches the resemblance. This Parke was (it seems) used by the late King, and Nobility for the freshness of the Air, and the goodly prospect: but it is that which now (besides all other excises) they pay for here in England, though it be free in all the World beside; every Coach and Horse which enters, buying his mouthful, and permission of the Publicane, who has purchased it, for which the entrance is guarded with Porters and long Staves.

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Spring Gardens.

The same writer informs us, that Spring Gardens, now covered with houses, was the Vauxhall of that time.

The manner is, as the Company returns, (from Hyde-Park) to alight at the Spring Garden, so called in order to the Parke, as our Thuilleries is to the Course; the inclosure not disagreeable, for the solemness of the Grove, the warbling of the Birds, and as it opens into the spacious walks at St. James's: but the Company *walk in it at such a rate, as you would think all the Ladies were so many Atalantas contending with their Wooers*; and my Lord there was no appearance that I should prove the Hippomenes, who could with very much ado, keep pace with them: But as fast as they run, they stay there so long, as if they wanted not time

to finish the Race; for it is usual here, to find some of the young company till midnight; and the Thickets of the Garden seem to be contrived to all advantages of Gallantry, after they have been refreshed with the Collation, which is here seldome omitted, at a certain Cabaret in the middle of this Paradise; where the forbidden fruites are certain trifling Tartes, Neates-tongues, Salacious (salted) meates, and bad Rhenish, for which the Gallants pay Sauce, as indeed they do at all such houses throughout England; for they think it a piece of frugality beneath them, to bargaine, or accompt for what they eat in any place however unreasonably imposed upon: But thus, those mean fellows are (as I told your Lordship) inriched; begger, and insult over the Gentlemen. I am assured that this particular Host, has purchased within few years, 5000 livres * of annuall rent; and well he may, at the rates these Prodigalls pay; whereas in France, a Gentleman esteems it no diminution to manage even these expences with reason.

It is within the remembrance of many of our readers, that *Marylone Gardens* was a place of amusement, of the same description, that is now streets; and *Ranelagh Gardens*, once the resort of beauty and elegance, where we have often witnessed the attractions of novelty, and the powers of fashion, —these too are now the site of domestic residences. If we look a little further, the Bear Gardens, and Paris Garden, of Shakespeare's time, the Mulberry Gardens, Cuper's Gardens, and many others, have given way to the gradual extension of this immense metropolis. The present gardens at Vauxhall, in our memory constantly called "Spring Gardens," are so jostled by neighbouring "Streets," "Places," and "Buildings," that we should be far from surprized, if a short time should inform us of a plan for a spacious square, or a "Vauxhall Place," to be substituted for that region of enchantment.

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Of Fools, and their Wit.

Shakespeare says well,

This fellow is wise enough to play the fool;
And, to do that well, it craves a kind of wit:
He must observe their mood on whom he jests,
The quality of the persons, and the time,——
——This is a practice,
As full of labour as a wise man's art.——

An instance or two may vindicate our poet's assertion, and convince, were they capable of conviction, our dashing witlings, that they have not sufficient sense to play the fool: moreover, wise fools have been of use on sundry occasions: but of what use have their foolish wisdoms been?

Kel Anayet was the jester of Abbas the Great of Persia. His fame is still fresh in that country for his sprightly wit, his burlesque drollery, his uncouth attitudes, and his uncontroulable command over the laughing powers of all who saw or heard him. The Shah by punning on his name, called him *Ketchel Anayet*, "Scald pate;" and suffered *him* to joke without danger on occasions which would have cost others dearly.

Abbas was excessively fond of a white hawk, which had been sent him as a present from Mount Caucasus. Being out one day on a hawking excursion, the Shah discovered that this bird was sick. In great vexation he called his grand Falconer, named *Hossein-bec*, and charged him most solemnly to take special care of this hawk: adding "whoever comes and tells me that he is dead, shall lose his head; depend upon it." Nevertheless, the bird died at the week's end. *Hossein-bec* in utter despondency saw *Kel Anayet* walking before the mews, in his way to the court. To him he told the disaster, conjuring him, with many tears, to save his life. "Agreed," said the droll, "if the Shah takes off any body's head to day, it shall be his own." Pursuing his intention, he found the Shah in the greatest good humour, just after dinner. "Scald pate, where do you come from," said Abbas. Anayet assuming the most jocose air imaginable answered, "From your Majesty's falconry: and pray listen with your utmost attention, for I am going to tell you the most marvellous!—most wonderful!—most astonishing!—that ever has been seen in this world! There I saw Hossein-bec, with his broom in his hand, sweeping a little square place, just before the gilded aviary; then he besprinkled it with rose-water; then he spread over it a little silken carpet, very curiously enriched with wrought flowers: then he went and fetched your white hawk, and—would you believe it?—shedding scalding tears over it, he laid it very gently on its back. There lay the hawk, without motion, his wings fallen, his bill uppermost, his claws elapsed, his eyes shut"—"What then;" said Abbas surprized, "my bird is dead!"—"Heaven preserve your Majesty's head," replied Anayet, "for surely it is safe to-day, notwithstanding your threat! —You have announced the tidings to yourself."

A management not less dexterous, on a subject much more important, was employed by a jester of the French court, when the king's servants were perplexed by what means to inform their master of the defeat his formidable armament at Sluys had met with from the English King Edward, in which many ships were [illegible]k. Knowing that the bearer of such unwelcome tidings would be ruined—they entrusted the favourite droll with the dangerous commission. He immediately e-

* Equal to 500 per ann. of present money.

quipped himself completely *à la militaire*: and strutting with martial fierceness began to vociferate "O brave Frenchmen! O brave Frenchmen!"—"Why, brave Frenchmen?" said the King—"Why?" said the plumed hero, "Why!—THE FRENCHMEN LEAPED INTO THE SEA; BUT THE ENGLISH DARED NOT FOLLOW. O brave Frenchmen! O brave Frenchmen!"

. . . . . .

Contrast contrived by peculiar Coincidences.

Contrast, is a principle resorted to by eminent painters often with extraordinary effects, when directed by skill and genius.

Paul Veronese, desirous to render the complexion of a female as lively as possible, contrived to heighten the vivacity of his colours beyond their natural tone, by placing immediately *before her* a boy clothed in a very grave brown, *behind her* a man cloathed in black, and on *one side of her* a negro, so that by the powerful contrast of these colours with the delicate tints, and brilliancy of the favoured beauty, her complexion appeared to be actually dazzling to the eye.

Has the reader never seen the power of contrast exemplified in life? in talent, in character, in management, in manners? in private parties, or in a public assembly?

. . . . . .

Name imposed by Inch of Candle.

Superstition has had recourse to innumerable ways of satisfying it's ever varying cravings. Without considering what possible relation there could be between cause and effect, it has prescribed and practised ceremonies, the folly of which must have struck any thinking mind, with contempt.

Andronicus, the Greek emperor, had a daughter named *Simonida*, which being rather a singular appellation for a princess, historians have taken some pains to enquire into the cause of its being selected. It seems, that the Emperor had had several children, but could not rear any to maturity. A famous matron of his acquaintance advised him to have made twelve wax candles, of perfectly equal weight and size: to light them before the images of the twelve apostles, and to give to a daughter of which the Empress was newly delivered, the name of that apostle whose wax candle lasted the longest. Andronicus followed this advice; and the candle before the image of *Simon* having outlasted the others, the princess was called *Simonida*, after the apostle. The life of this lady was singularly chequered with misfortune, from which her patroness Simon *did* not deliver her; perhaps, because he was not pleased with being indebted for his dignity, to chance, and therefore left to chance the fortunes of his *protégée*, notwithstanding she bore his name.

SOME PARTICULARS RELATIVE TO THE FRENCH EAST INDIA COMPANY, COMMONLY CALLED THE NEW COMPANY.

We shall not enter into any details upon the subject of French East-India Companies in general, but merely confine our observations to that Company which owed its dissolution to the abolition of monarchy in France. In 1785 when it was in agitation to establish a new East-India Company, M. de Calonne consulted merchants and others conversant in commercial matters, upon the subject of the said establishment, and at their instance, so formed the new Company, as to free it from the shackles which had incumbered the ancient one, at the same time extending in a surprising manner it's views and, in fact, placing it in the high road to prosperity.—The fourth article of the decree of council of 14th April, 1785, enacted that the exclusive privilege of trading to the Indies, granted to the Company, should remain in force for seven years *of Peace*, the computation of which period to take place from the time of departure of the Company's first expedition.—The sixteenth article fixed the capital of the Company at 20 millions of livres, or nearly £833,334 sterling which sum was divided into 20,000 shares of 100 livres each. It was soon, however, discovered that this capital would not be adequate to the extent of the Company's commercial views, and accordingly by a fresh decree dated 21st September 1786, it was augmented by 20 millions more, and divided into similar shares with the former grant; the holders of the old shares being likewise holders of the new, for not having received any dividend upon the original stock, they thought themselves entitled to a preference in the division of the second. This capital of 40,000,000 livres or £1,666,668, together with the credit of the Company, put it in a fair way of annually exporting for the Indies merchandises to the value of between 25 and 30 millions of livres, or from £1,041,668, to £1,250,001 sterling.—The ninth article of the last mentioned decree extends the privilege to fifteen instead of seven years of peace.—All the operations of the Company were superintended by twelve directors, who were answerable for the due administration of its affairs and were obliged to hold on their own accounts, at least 250 stock shares.—The first dividend, was announced on the 21st April 1788, and the amount of it, namely 18 per cent, was decided upon in a general court of directors, the net profits of the Company having been laid before the court and duly examined. The sum to be paid upon each share was determined by ballot and a majority of suffrages. The expences attendant on the outfit of the

Company's ships from the time of its establishment to 1st January 1789 were 19,190,599 livres or about £828,775; the number of the said ships being 33, whereof 12 were annually cleared for Pondicherry and the coast of Coromandel, 9 for Bengal and Chandernagore, 6 for China, 4 for the coast of Malabar, and 2 for Mocha.—All these vessels set out from and returned to the port of l'Orient, where they discharged their cargoes, and the Company's sales took place. —It appears from a catalogue or bill of sale now before us, that the India Company's sale* at l'Orient in November 1788 was as follows, viz. 65000 lbs. saltpetre, 330950 lbs. bohea tea, 342909 lbs. congou, 221504 lbs. campoi, 123 lbs. pekoe, 148 lbs. green, 239901 lbs. superior green, 123096 lbs. green twankay, 54879 lbs. souchong, 27037 lbs. skin hyson, 141801 lbs. best hyson, 300 lbs. cinnamon, 10503 lbs. mace, 36342 lbs. rhubarb, 130 lbs. Chinese spun cotton, 750 masses of mother-of-pearl, 255,000 lbs. cowries, 173,000 lbs. pepper, 19220 lbs. of lacquer in leaves, 323127 lbs. red wood, 40,000 lbs. raw nankeen silk, 120564 pieces of porcelain, consisting of table and tea services; 58563 pieces of striped, spotted, and plain callicoes, such as ginghams, habassies, caladairis; handkerchiefs, such as foulards, korolles, tapseils, chaperats; 789459 pieces of muslin, consisting chiefly of yellow nankeens, (to the number of 178830 pieces) anoudy, calligans, ballacors, chandesconas, bossues, &c. 82095 pieces of Patna stuffs, such as gurrahs, baftaes, chowtars, laccowries, cushtaes, and mulmuls. Hence it will be seen that the Company carried on a tolerably extensive traffic, but the decree of the convention, dated 1790, put a stop to it's proceedings and the trade between India and France has since remained free.

BERNARDIN DE ST. PIERRE'S THEORY OF CURRENTS.

The following article, by a regular correspondent of the Panorama, has appeared in the Athenæum. As the writer has favoured us with a postscript to it, we insert it entire in order that our readers may have the whole of the subject before them.

Capt. Lebozec, of the French frigate the Clorinda, threw over a bottle, containing a letter, in lat. N. 19 22 long. 55 30, W. of Paris, on the 11th of Jan. 1801. This letter was picked up on the nineteenth of March following, on the coast of Guadeloupe, at a place called Anse Patate, in the canton of Moule. Its course, therefore, had been at least two hundred leagues from N. E. to S. E. in sixty-seven days.

Lescallier, in his *Etudes de la Nature*, publlshed in 1784, has written on this kind of marine post, as he terms it. The first bottle was thrown over at the entrance of the Bay of Biscay, on the 17th of Aug. 1786, and picked up on the 9th of May, 1787, at sea, by a fishing boat, two leagues off the coast of Normandy. It was forwarded to the address in London.—Another was thrown over on the 15th of June, 1797, in lat. 44. 22. E. of the meridian of Teneriffe. A soldier found it on the 6th of July following, on the shore of Cape Prior, near Fer ol. It had gone above 120 leagues in three weeks, and was forwarded to the above M. Lescallier.—A third bottle was carried above nine hundred leagues in a strait course; it was thrown over two hundred leagues north of the Isle of France, by a French captain on his passage to India. It was picked up at the Cape of Good Hope, and contained an oiled letter directed to the governor of the isle of France. Further particulars of it are not known.

It is interesting to observe that, of these experiments on the theory of currents, the first was dictated by paternal affection. An Englishman embarking at Cadiz for India, not having an opportunity of sending a letter to his sister, committed it to the waves, which, after tossing it about for nearly nine months, threw it on the coast of Normandy.

M. Lescallier concludes the subject with regretting that La Peyrouse did not employ these trajectile means of giving information to his country. Great power in the hands of man sometimes produces but feeble effects, whilst these, when directed by the great author of nature, often bring about grand events. A reed of a foreign species, found by Columbus on the shores of the Canaries, led him to conjecture that a new world lay to the westward.

In the Literary Panorama for Nov. last (Vol. III. p. 304.) your correspondents will meet with the account of another bottle, containing a letter to Lord William Bentinck, which was picked up on the coast of Ireland.

Yours, &c. C. W.

Postscript.

Mons. Brard, a French painter, in his passage from Madeira to Cayenne, in 1798, threw fifty bottles into the sea: one of them addressed to M. Bernardin de St. Pierre he received. There is no account given of the others.

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* This, it may not be deemed unnecessary to observe, was the largest of the Company's sales from the time of it's establishment to that of it's dissolution.

POETRY.

THE BARON OF COTTINGHAM'S AITH, A LEGENDARY TALE.

Who ever lifted up his hand against GOD, *and prospered?*———

The Baron of Cottingham vow'd a vow,
Which he solemnly swore to keep,
'Ere break of morn—'ere the cock did crow—
Or the breath of the rising breeze did blow,
On the walls of his castle steep.

For the Hessle monks have done me despight;
For their Abbot is my hated foe:
It is my sword must do me right:—
I am a craven, not a Knight,
If Vengeance I forego.

He instantly summon'd his merry men bold:—
First came twelve for riding dight;
Each did his sword, and long lance hold,
Glitter'd each targe with burnish'd gold,
For each was a gallant Knight.

Their twelve squires came with heedful haste;
His brand of steel each fain to try:
They came full fast, at the echoing blast;
Long e'er the bugle's sound was past,
They stood the Baron nigh.

Twelve yeomen followed stout and strong
In cloaks of crimson, cheerfully:
Each man among that gallant throng
Bore an ashen spear, both tough and long,
Which he might handle manfully.

And who is that, with the bloody shield,
Who stalks the Captain of the train?—
Bravely could he the faulchion wield:
Distain with Christian blood the field,
And raise the shout o'er warriors slain.

Sir Arthur of Hareland, stout and keen,
And Roger of Hareland he was there;
Their cloaks I ween, of forest green;
Their banner broad, of crimson sheen,
Wav'd in the midnight air.

They took their aith, e'er the morning ray
Should shine o'er Hessle cheerily,
Or, e'er the lark salute the day,
They would plunder and burn the fair Abbaye,
And leave it smoking dreerily.

So the drawbridge fell, and they hied them out:
The drawbridge rose amain;———
Their leaders three in eager rout,
With knights and squires, and yeomen stout,
Cross'd o'er the sandy plain.

The Baron, on charger snowy white,
With the knights of Hareland led the van;
Their armour bright gleam'd sickly light,
For the moon appall'd that fateful night
With lustre deadly wan.

Nor heeded they not the evening cold;
The welkin blue and clear;
But spurred his horse each chieftain bold,
Grasp'd his long lance with strictest hold,
Nor God nor man they fear.

Round Southwood they their coursers guide,
To Hareland's lovely grove;
Hence fast by Skidley hills they ride,
Close by the mountain's greenest side,
Where tripping fairies rove.

With greater haste, and quicker still,
Rode they the vale of Willoughby;
Till they view'd Kirk Ella's armed peel,
And eastward of the shady hill,
The fertile fields of Anlaby.

But sudden as they held their course,
The moon look'd burning red;
Started and rear'd each foaming horse:
Nor heeded the rider's skill, or force;
Or soothing words obeyed.

The bell toll'd from the dark Abbaye,
The ivy-mantled tow'r;
With ruddier gleam the moonbeams play,
With fiercer heat obstruct the way,
Heat of resistless pow'r!

Glittered the wand'ring meteor's glare,
As the priest the blessed mass did sing;
With pious thought, with pious care,
His foes in his orison share,
When the Abbey bell did ring.

The priests they crowd the altar's height,
Their hallow'd voice to raise:
Struck at the sight of the fiery light
Of the moon which rose so fair and bright,
When they chaunted their vesper's praise.

They marvell'd to hear the shrill, shrill blast,
Re-echo through the Abbey nave.
They fancied some furious dæmon past
On the wing of the storm, so fell and fast,
O'er Humber's refluent wave.

What phantom knights glide down the vale?
What can disturb the dead?
Swift thro' the chilly air they sail,
Or join in many a mournful wail,
O'er Humber's sandy bed.

Veil'd was the moon, and dark the night,
And dark the lonesome wood:
When lo! the lurid lightnings bright,
Flashed forked beams of sulphur'ous light,
Round where the warriors stood.

Nine-and-thirty heroes true,
Rode, Cottingham, o'er thy heath:
But of thirty-nine that outward flew,
Not a man return'd through the early dew,
To tell the tale of death.

Nine-and-thirty coursers fleet,
Gallop'd rapidly o'er the clay:
Each bore a warrior firm in his seat;
But that warrior sunk beneath his feet,
And breathed his life away.

The Baron saw the fair Abbaye,
His knights and yeomen lined the shore;
But never man, at early day,
When that horrid night was pass'd away,
Saw the haughty Baron more.

The broadest oak in Hessle wood
Was rent and skaithed horribly;
There stream'd a flood, of purple blood,
For 'neath that oak the hero stood,
Where the thunder's bolt fell terribly.

Oft o'er thy towers, proud Cottingham,
The wardour mark'd it at his post,
Was seen that night the livid flame;
And oft it went, and oft it came,
By every varying night breeze tost,

It blaz'd o'er Humber's sounding tide,
On Hessle's rocks all silver white;
Adown the hills on Barton's side,
To Ancombe, Trent, and far and wide——
And terrified much the peaceful night.

Yet did not the monks their zeal forego;
Nor did retain their enmity;
They heard, aghast, the tale of woe,
Pity'd their unrelenting foe;
And pardon'd all for charity.

They requiems sung for the heroes dead;
For Cottingham, for Harebells twain:
For knights and yeomen by them led:
The prayer was made, the mass was said,
For every Christian slain.

Yet true was the Baron of Cottingham's vow,
And sworn his aith aright:
For long e'er the morning cock did crow,
Or the breath of the rising breeze did blow,
The Abbey gleam'd with smouldering light.

R. Kennedy.

*** Cottingham is a small village, about five miles from Hull, and nearly the same distance from Hessle. The tradition of this story has not been very strictly adhered to, in the present poem.

In the poem of Amor Patriæ, line 85, for Annan of deadly sway,—read—And Ann of deadly sway.

EPILOGUE TO BEGONE DULL CARE.

Spoken by Miss Smith.

Once more I come—your smiles, or frowns to face—
And, like my lover,—talk of common-place—
To do my best to banish from the nation—
All hacknied modes,—all servile *Imitation.*—
Ay, that's the word—we copy—cry the bold ones—
And most new fashions may be trac'd from old ones.
Because in Noah's patriarchal days,
Our *good first people* copy'd nature's ways—
Our *fine first people* now—in dress—not feature!
Do all they can, to stick quite close to nature.
Because that ancient animal, a horse,
With rapid movement, long has pac'd the course,
Is back'd, and betted on by knowing stagers—
Man—servile man! must run and trot for wagers
And two-legg'd walkers, now, do so much more,
Than all the other cattle upon four,
That soon, no doubt, some dashing Jehu Billy,
Will drive four gentlemen down Piccadilly!
And, halting where a sign provision shews—
Cry—"*Hay and water!—for—my four cropt beaux!*"
(Mimicking foppish tone and manner.)
How long rich citizens have had the passion
To live in squares,—and ape each western fashion!
But now the fashion copies them so far,
That if you travel east of Temple-bar,
There, the gay world in throngs you will encounter,
And there!—the Fleet—King's Bench—and Poultry Compter!
Then ladies' cloaks!—so ruddy, warm, and loose!
They're copied from the tales of Mother Goose.
And modern wolves! take care!—they prowl in crowds,
For little—and for large, Red Riding-Hoods.
All, all is borrow'd—and it makes such pother!
For e'en our *saints* so copy one another!
That 'twixt these four—no more for difference look—
St. James!—St. Giles!—St. Stephen!—and St. Luke!
Bards too!—like tars, their hostile fire can't quench—
For plays, like ships, are taken from the French!

One word then to ye all, before I go—
Since ours is "English Sirs!—from top to toe"—
Support your countryman—befriend *his* cause—
Who now—like me—would *borrow* your applause.

SONG IN WHO WINS.

William and Jonathan came to town together,
William brought learning, and Jonathan some leather;

Said William to Jonathan, what d'ye mean to do?
Said Jonathan to William, I can sole a shoe.
With my leather, &c.

Said Jonathan to William, pray what's your intention?
William talk'd of things far above his comprehension;
He mean't to write poetry, pamphlets, songs and plays,
Epitaphs, epigrams, and puffs, the wind to raise.
With his latin, &c.

It chanc'd that they lodged in the same house together,
Will stuck close to books, and Jonathan to leather;
Johnny, in the cellar, like any hog grew fat,
Will, in the garret, was as thin as a starv'd cat.
With their leather, latin, &c.

When they had liv'd in town for years nearly twenty,
Will was very poor, but Jonathan had plenty;
When meeting one day, they compared notes together,
And clearly prov'd that learning wasn't half so good as leather.
Sing leather, &c.

THE TYGER AND THE DEER.

(By Mr. Brandon, author of Kais.)

When the fierce tyger prowls the path of death,
The parent-deer the fondest tremors move!
Quick from her young, she flies with panting breath!
Her flight is fondness, as her death is love.

To draw the tyrant from th' unsheltered brood,
She leads him chacing to some distant wood,
Her toil-worn limbs she yields without dismay,
Dies for her young, and falls a sacred prey.

STANZAS

Supposed to be written, on beholding a Hindoo Widow sacrifice herself on the funeral Pile of her deceased Husband.

What means yon fun'ral pomp, yon mournful crowd,
Those white-stol'd Priests in solemn guise that move,
Yon Matron crown'd with flow'rs, whose griefs so loud
Fright the green confines of this gloomy grove?

Stranger! 'tis one by Superstition's doom
Ordain'd alive to mount the blazing pile,
Yield to devouring fire life's vernal bloom,
And learn at Death's most horrid form to smile.

To wail a husband lost, not tears suffice
Or deep-drawn sigh, or anguish-vented moan;
But circling round her widow'd form shall rise
Flames that must make the dead and living one.

Lo! her own hand the fatal torch shall rear
To light yon fragile dome of leafy pride,
On her own head the hot destruction tear,
Whilst sulph'rous clouds th' expiring victim hide.

But ah! from earth can she each feeling wrest
Does no fond tie still hold her thoughts below;
No throb maternal wring that tortur'd breast,
And bid the pride-check'd tear unwilling flow?

Yes! tho' th' inebriating drug inspire,
Tho' transient frenzy cloud her harass'd sight,
Shudd'ring she views yon consecrated fire
Doom'd soon to wrap her in eternal night.

Yet back to turn, and ask a length of years;
Lo! Superstition's frown appals her mind;
Dull prejudice, with infamy appears
And threatning shakes her scorpion lash behind.

Ah! see the victim mounts death's bridal bed
Clasps the cold corse, and waves the blazing brand!
Pillow'd on fire, low sinks her desp'rate head!—
Amaz'd—with horror chill'd—the gazers stand!

That stifled shriek of agonizing woe;
Pale, startled stranger! didst thou faintly hear?
No! the harsh drum forbids her plaints to flow,
And murm'ring Priests loud chaunt th' unhallow'd pray'r.

High mounts the flame, the crumbling fragments yield,
No longer lie those scorch'd, sad forms expos'd;
A sabler smoke envelopes all the field—
Hark! that last crash!—the dreadful scene is clos'd.—

'Tis o'er—and one more victim at thy shrine
A wither'd corse, FELL SUPERSTITION! dies,
In erring virtue mocks the pow'rs divine,
And every grace of martyrdom belies.

Children of Brama! ye, who shrink from blood,
Who scrup'lous e'en the venom'd reptile spare;
How long, with human sacrifice imbru'd,
Shall these dire altars shock the tainted air?

Cease, impious, cease! nor reason's laws defy;
At nature's sacred mandates scoff no more;
Let not such incense cloud your purer sky,
As FIENDS must joy to quaff, and HEAV'N abhor!

Madras, 1807.

OBSERVANDA EXTERNA.

AFRICA.

Ashantees and Fantees.—Accounts have been received from Cape Coast Castle to the end of October. By these it appears, that the King of the Ashantees has completely extirpated the Fantees, but the most perfect friendship subsists between him and the British, on the African coast.

AUSTRIA.

Singular Duel.—On the 12th ult. a remarkable duel was fought near Brannau, with a publicity and solemnity, we believe, altogether unexampled in modern times, and which assimilates this combat to the legal and judicial duels of the feudal ages. The parties were Baron Von Duben, formerly Swedish Minister at Vienna, and Baron Von Wrede, a General in the Bavarian service; and the occasion of it, as far as we can collect in general, was this.—Some dispatches, which had been sent from Vienna to Stockholm, by the Swedish minister, were intercepted by the French, and made public. In these, Baron Duben had reflected very severely upon the conduct of the Bavarian troops in the campaign of 1805, accusing them of surpassing even the French in acts of pillage and cruelty. This was resented as a calumny on the Bavarian military. General Wrede, as the principal officer, immediately challenged Baron Duben, with an intimation that if he himself should fall, the Baron would be called out by the next in rank, and so on, till he was killed. The parties could not come together immediately; their respective sovereigns forbade their fighting; but the Swede ventured in a case of this kind to disobey, and travelled into the south of Germany to meet his enemy. But here he found that the Bavarian General had been more obedient to his master, and had, on command, neglected to attend his appointment. On this, the Minister posted the General as a coward in the public prints of Germany, about a year since; and the general opinion was of course in his favour. We find from the last French papers, that the duel was fought on the 12th ult. near Brannau, in the presence of a great number of the inhabitants. Baron Duben came from Vienna on purpose, and had been already a week there; General Wrede arrived the day before. The parties met in the village on the Bavarian side of the Inn; and after the seconds (the English Colonel Burke, and Count Von Rechberg) had made the arrangements, they entered the lists, which were beset by Bavarian military, and placed themselves at a distance of fifteen paces. Baron Duben fired, and the ball passed the right ear of his adversary. General Wrede's first pistol missed fire. The Baron's second fire was equally ineffectual, the ball passing the General's breast. The General's next pistol flashed in the pan. Enraged at this repeated mischance, he drew his sword, and advanced towards the Baron; but the seconds rushed forward, and declared that the combatants had acted like men of honour, and that nothing further could or should be done. They then departed from each other in a state of perfect reconciliation.

DENMARK.

Casualties by Bombardment of Copenhagen.—The list of deaths in Copenhagen, during the year 1807, includes 282 individuals, who were killed by shells, or died of their wounds, in the bombardment of that capital.

Ships that passed the Sound.—During last year, 6,240 ships cleared the Sound duties. Of that number, 3,387 came from the North Sea, viz.—648 Danish, 664 Swedish, 142 Prussian, 47 Papenbourg, 13 Hamburgh, 74 Oldenburgh, 21 Bremen, 21 Rostock, 9 Lubeck, 65 Russian, 104 American, 22 Portuguese, and 1,559 English ships.—2,851 ships came from the Baltic, viz.—504 Danish, 715 Swedish, 125 Prussian, 52 Papenbourg, 12 Hamburgh, 82 Oldenburgh, 25 Bremen, 21 Rostock, 4 Lubeck, 54 Russian, 102 American, 22 Portuguese, and 1,073 English ships.—In 1805, 11,537 ships cleared the Sound duties: in 1806, 7,140.

FRANCE.

Improved Manufacture of Soap.—Mr. Curaudau, Professor of Chymistry applied to the arts, has demonstrated in a memorial which he has read in the Institute of France, on the theory of saponification: that *oxigène* is one of the component parts of soap; that to this principle, the oxigenated oils, or those which oxigenate easily, owe their property of making the best soap; lastly, he has pointed out a very simple procedure, by which oils are instantly oxigenated, and by which the fabrication of soap may be quickened, and improved at the same time.

Dr. Gall's Course of Lectures on Physiology at Paris, consists of ten or twelve discourses of two hours each. The demonstration of the human brain is shewn separately to such persons as desire it.

On the 15th of January, 1808, at 2 o'clock, Dr. Gall opened his course of lectures, by vindicating his principles from the imputation of fatalism: he denied that the mind is subjected to the influence of the bodily organs; but affirmed, on the contrary, that the bodily organs are subservient to the mind. The mind has not eyes to see with, ears to hear with, a palate to distinguish tastes, organs of smell to enjoy perfumes; or a general sense of touch, by which it is convinced of the presence of bodies: these are *bodily* senses,

yet neither sight, nor hearing, tasting nor smelling, nor the sense of touching, pretends to domineer over the rational powers of man. This sovereign sits, as it were, in a palace, and receives information by the ministry of the senses; yet is not subject to their controul.

It is also certain, that every individual is born with his own proper dispositson: and this is true as well of animals as of men. The lion, the tiger, the panther, the eagle, the vulture, &c., are naturally ferocious. The ox, the goat, the sheep, the birds that live on grain, are naturally mild, and peaceable. The fox and the cat are cunning; the dog is intelligent; the ass and the turkey are dull. Among men, some are born with a lively imagination, a penetrating wit, a sound judgment, a mild disposition; others with slow and heavy senses, hard hearts, and savage souls. To what are these differences to be attributed? To the temperament of the constitution, say some;—but probably, says Dr. Gall, to the conformation of the brain.

The Dr. commences his scale of relations on this subject, with the zoophite, or animal plant: this has no spinal marrow, nor brain. The worm has a spinal marrow, but no appearance of brain. The caterpillar has a spinal marrow, terminated by a ganglion, which indicates a motion of the brain; as organization gradually advances, this ganglion is increased, and approaches toward perfection, its parts are developed, and enlarged, step by step. A fish is better furnished than an insect; a bird possesses more than a fish; a quadruped possesses more than a bird; and so on, from degree to degree, till man unites all that is possessed by animals, with a property peculiarly his own.

The brain, which had appeared to many anatomists to be a medullary substance, void of functions and organization, appears to Dr. G. to be the seat of all our operations, he describes it as a tissue folded on itself, and susceptible of a general developement. This opinion is the result of a great number of observations on disorders of the brain. In cases of hydrocephalus (in which disease the brain is swelled, being filled with water), he has found the brain entirely unfolded, yet in this condition the patients have performed all the functions of reason as well as usual. A preacher, who died of hydrocephalus, three days before his death preached to an auditory which did not perceive that his sermon was inferior to his former. M. Richerand, had a patient, whose brain was exposed by a removal of part of the bone of the cranium. This eminent practitioner, desirous of investigating the use of the brain in the functions of life, contrived to press with his hand the surface of this membrane: and he found, that on his pressure, the intellectual faculties ceased immediately: when he withdrew his hand, the patient recovered his understanding.

Dr. Gall, after infinite researches, is of opinion, that in proportion to the developement of the brain, is the power of intelligence. Stupid animals have very little brain: more sagacious animals have a greater proportion; no animal has so much as man; and among men, idiots are remarkable for the smallness of the head, and paucity of brain. The Cretins of the Vallais, have the head very small. The brain of a young woman (about 20 years of age) suffering under imbecility, was not larger than that of a fœtus of a few months. The brain of an old woman, imbecile also, did not exceed in size that of a child of three years old. M. Pinel has preserved a brain which confirms this observation.

But in comparing the different forms of the brain among animals, it is remarked, that those which have such or such inclinations, have these parts invariably formed in a determined and constant manner: to this form of the part, then, may be attached the idea of such, or such an inclination. In the human brain, for instance, whenever we find the organ in the same state, form, &c., we are at liberty to suspect that it imports the same inclination. But if it be asked, whether this conformation controuls the liberty of conduct?—No, says the Dr.,—because, conformations only indicate the natural disposition of the bodily organ, they do not produce volition. Now, education, religion, the laws, constrain the will; and volition yields to a cause more powerful than itself. It cannot be denied, that a cat has a natural disposition to eat a mouse; yet, by the influence of education, a cat may be made to live with a mouse, without eating it. Leave a dog to his natural inclinations, he would dart on his game, the instant he saw it, yet, after repeated castigations, he is taught, that it is more to his interest to attend on the sportsman, notwithstanding the powerful indications of his organ of hunting. What child has not a natural inclination to indulge his *sweet tooth* by eating of cakes, and comfits? Yet a good mother, with a rod, or a sage grey-bearded preceptor, teaches him to let cakes and comfits lie quiet, without so much as exciting his appetite. So does education triumph over the propensities of nature.

Such is the abstracted report of Dr. Gall's *first lecture*, as it has reached us, from Paris. If in the continuance of the course other curious matter should arise, we shall readily pay it attention.

Conscripts.—Paris, Feb. 11. In virtue of a Decree issued from the Palace of the Thuilleries, on the 7th inst. 60,000 Conscripts will be taken from the 80,000 called into

service by authority of the *Senatus Consultum* of the 21st of last January. The remaining 20,000 will form the reserve of 1809.

Persian Embassy.—Paris, March 1. The official Journal of this day contains the following article, dated Constantinople, Jan. 28. —"General Gardanne, Ambassador from the Emperor Napoleon to Persia, arrived on the 8th of November, at Koi, the first town on the Persian territory. He there found every thing prepared for his reception. He boasts of the complaisance shewn to him by Prince Abbas-Mirza, the eldest son of the Persian Monarch, and the Governor of this frontier town. In the same place he met the Persian Ambassador on his way to France, whose retinue consists of more than one hundred persons, and who carries with him elegant and curious presents, to the value of several millions. Among them are two swords of Thomarian and Thomas Kouli Khan. These swords are covered with precious stones, and are still in the state in which they were worn by the two Conquerors, to whom they belonged. These particulars have been communicated by persons belonging to the embassy, and who have seen the valuable presents."

French Army in Spain.—Return of the French troops which have entered, or were to enter Spain, through Irun, from the 19th of October, 1807, to the 18th of January, 1808:—

Generals.		Men.	Horses.
Junot	...	29,879	3,653
Dupont	...	23,927	3,121
Moncey	...	17,933	3,330
Total	...	71,739	10,104

GERMANY.

Destruction of British Property.—Cassel, Feb. 14. The Westphalian Moniteur contains the following article: The introduction of any kind of English commodities, is now forbidden throughout the whole kingdom: and all public officers are to make the utmost exertions to carry the order into complete effect. On the 1st instant, several bales of English merchandize were seized at Marbourg, which were immediately publicly burnt, according to the Royal Ordinance.

Scarcity of Commodities in Russia and Poland.—The French papers report from Leipsic, under date of Jan. 14, that the Michaelmas fair at that city proved to be generally good; especially toward the close, when a number of Russian and Polish dealers arrived, and made considerable purchases. It was therefore expected, that the new year's fair would prove perfectly insignificant. But since the commencement of the year, dealers from Russia and Poland, who seldom visited Leipsic, arrived daily. They have brought considerable sums of money, and purchase German manufactures, particularly Saxon goods: there being an absolute dearth of English articles. Unluckily, our warehousemen, not expecting such a visit, had furnished no great quantities of their goods. Those whose manufactories were within distance, sent for whatever was ready for sale, which was sold as soon as brought. No other foreigners attended this sale.

New Translation of New Testament.—Among the books lately sold at Leipsic during the last fair, was a translation of the New Testament, by the two brothers d'Ess, of the order of St. Benoît, of which 10,000 copies have been sold in three months.

HOLLAND.

Particulars of the late Storm at Amsterdam.—Amsterdam, Jan. 19. The violent gale from N. N. E. on Jan. 15, having caused the North Sea to rise, off Katwyck, to the extraordinary height of 17 feet above the customary water-mark of Amsterdam; the sea, south of this city, was soon filled, by its mouths, with an immense quantity of water. —The *Ya*, which off Amsterdam, was at midnight only 4 inches above the usual mark, rose at six o'clock in the morning, nearly to 54 inches; while, near Spaarndam, it was 41 inches above the same mark. As the tempest continued, the tide rose off Amsterdam, at 10 o'clock in the morning, to 69 inches, and near Spaarndam, to 64 inches: at 4 o'clock in the afternoon, it was off Amsterdam 86 inches; and near Spaarndam, 84 inches above the usual mark. All the suburbs of Amsterdam were under water. The wind, increasing in violence, having shifted more northwards, the waves entered with great force the lower docks. In several places between Spaarndam and Amsterdam, the waters overflowed the dykes, and they were stopped up with faggots. The works which defended the town against the sea, are considerably damaged. At half past nine, the tide was off Amsterdam, 69 inches; and near Spaarndam, 64 inches above the mark; had decreased 20 inches. On the Yssel, near Gouda, the water rose at six o'clock in the morning of the 15th, to 114 inches above the usual mark of Amsterdam.

ITALY.

Winter Presents, at Naples.—On Thursday Dec. 24, 1807, the City of Naples presented to the King, according to ancient usage, the customary present of fruits, flowers, and game. Those who observed this ceremony, could not sufficiently admire the freshness, the beauty, and the abundance, of these fruits and flowers, notwithstanding it was in the depth of winter.

We should be much obliged to any of our correspondents, who having wintered at Na-

ples, has been a spectator of this ceremony, for a further description of it; and, as it is most likely that the species of these fruits and flowers are fixed by custom, a description of what this present consists of, will oblige us.

Downfall of the Pope.—Notice of the Secretary of State, Cardinal Cassoni. Rome, February 2, 1808. "His Holiness, Pius VII. being unable to conform to all the demands made on him by the French government, and to the extent required of him, as it is contrary to his sacred duties, and the dictates of his conscience; and being thus compelled to submit to the disastrous consequences which have been threatened, and to the military occupation of his capital, in case he should not submit to such demands.——Yielding, therefore, in all humility of heart, to the inscrutable determinations of the Most High, he places his cause in the hands of the Almighty: and being unwilling to fail in the essential obligations of guaranteeing the rights of his Sovereignty, he has commanded us to protest, and formally protests in his own name, as well as in that of his successors, against any occupation whatever of his dominions, being desirous that the rights of the Holy Chair should remain, now and henceforward, uninjured and untouched.—As the Vicar on earth of that God of Peace who taught, by his divine example, humility and patience, he has no doubt but his most beloved subjects, who have given him so many repeated proofs of obedience and attachment, will make it their peculiar study to preserve peace and tranquillity, private as well as public, which his Holiness exhorts, and expressly commands; and that, far from committing any excesses, they will rather respect the individuals of a nation, from whom, during his journey, and stay in Paris, he received so many *flattering testimonies* of devotion and regard."

NETHERLANDS.

State of Taxes, and Interest of Money.—However Buonaparté may detest England as a rival, he has seen that the ingenuity of Mr. Pitt is well worthy of imitation; and is actually following him. Wines, spirits, and beer, are subject to heavy duties. Property is taxed, though not in exactly the same way: licenses for the sale of almost every thing must be taken out, and a special license for the sale of tobacco and gunpowder. Two-pence half-penny was the price of a pack of cards twelve months ago, but now they are not to be bought for less than half a crown; and none may be sold without being first duly stamped.—The revenues arising from stamps are immense; every thing of a public nature, even the processes of law, which are to appear in the court, and from which counsellors are to plead; and all addresses to the public authorities must be on stamps; as must also every page of the ledger of a man of business, if he mean to employ it as a document to prove his debts. Every mortgage is registered at the stamp-office, and a large duty paid upon it. This is a regulation which furnishes great advantages to the country at large; for a man cannot deceive another by taking a second mortgage on his estate while the first is unpaid, as it can always be known, by applying to the office, what mortgage lies at that time upon it. In every department is a stamp-office, and a registry of the sales and mortgages of estates, where ordinary stamps are distributed, and *extra* ones may be procured; for an unstamped deed may be rendered legal, by being stamped afterwards, and a triple duty paid.—They have taxes on land, windows, and doors; an annual poll-tax, and one on household furniture. Besides these, many manufactured and printed goods pay a duty; and the post-horse duty, and turnpikes, bring in a large revenue.—Money is at an exorbitant interest; *one per cent. per month* is often paid, and little is lent under eight, or ten, *per cent. per annum.* The scarcity of the circulating medium is so great in the departments, and even in the great commercial towns; and the old resources have so much disappeared, that a sufficient encouragement cannot be given to the mechanic to finish his work. He must offer it at a low price if he expect it to be sold, and consequently must bestow less labour upon it, or work it up from inferior materials.—WORSLEY.

To the articles subjected to a stamp duty, under the French government, this writer might have added, *every sheet of periodical and pamphlet publications:* on which, individually, is a stamp impressed, as is done on paper-hangings for rooms, in Britain. We regret that *all* counties in our island, are not *register* counties: as some are: the convenience and advantages, of these institutions, have long recommended them to the public.—In the case of morgages, &c.

Our readers will compare the interest of money in the departments, which appears to be common in various parts of France, with that which has been established for the capital [Vide Panorama, Vol. II. page 852.]. Both the northern and the southern provinces are obliged to pay 8, 10, or even 12, per cent., for money; while the bank of France offers money at 4 per cent. There is either (which we believe) some fallacy in this offer, or there is no intercourse between the capital and the country. A disproportion so monstrous could

not long exist in Britain. Under this disadvantage what export trade, a trade implying credit given to adventurers, can the departments undertake, or maintain?

PERSIA.

French Embassy.—However chimerical the project of sending a French army by land to India may be considered, it is certain that Buonaparté is seriously occupied by arrangements connected with that enterprize. The English government are in possession of information, that during the month of November, more than two hundred French officers passed Bussorah on their route to the Persian Court. A French officer, disguised as a Persian merchant, was lately apprehended at Lahore, and amongst other papers found in his possession was a minute survey of the country, from Herat to Candahar and Cabal.—The present situation of Persia, although it is not calculated to offer any interruption to the passage of a French army, is not competent to afford it many facilities; the empire appears to be distracted by intestine commotions, and severely embarrassed by foreign aggression.

RUSSIA.

Account of the Russian Admiral, Siniavin.—This officer is of one of the first families in Russia. About the year 1783, being then a youth, he was sent to England by the Russian court, who obtained permission from the British government for his being admitted a volunteer in our navy. He was accordingly, by order of the Lords of the Admiralty, received on board the Leander, of 50 guns, then destined for the Halifax station, in America, where he served about three years. He was afterwards employed for nearly the same time in the Mediterranean, as a volunteer midshipman, on board the Pearl frigate, then commanded by the late Honourable Seymour Finch, brother to the Earl of Aylesford, which ship he quitted at Smyrna, in 1789, in order to render to his own country the benefit of that knowledge and experience he had acquired from us, Russia being then engaged in a war with the Turks, against whom he seemed, by nature, to be a zealous adversary. During the last war he served, and held the rank of a post captain in the Russian navy, and was one of their fleet that wintered in the Medway; but on that fleet being ordered home, and the Emperor Paul entering into the views of Buonaparté, he retired, and continued in retirement until Russia again made common cause with this country.

SPAIN.

Conspiracy against the King.—Since the liberation of the Prince Asturias, a commission has been named for the purpose of investigating the charges relative to the authors of the conspiracy entered into against his Majesty.—This commission has now laid their report before the King; and in consequence of it, the Duke of Infantado, and other lords, have been banished for a certain number of years, and a bishop has received orders to retire to a convent assigned to him."

Plenty of Money, but no Wool, &c.—Indirect intelligence has been received at Cadiz, from Spanish America; it appears they have there great abundance of money, in silver, and ingots of gold, which they know not what to do with, and in return they are absolutely in want of woollen cloths, hardware, and other articles of manufacture.—There arrived in our port last year 1,018 vessels, under different flags, 704 Spanish, 74 French, 64 Americans, 58 Danish, 28 Algerines, 20 Austrians, 14 Moors, 18 Ragusans, 12 Sardinians, 9 Turks, &c.—*Barcelona, Feb.* 1.

SWEDEN.

Alterations of Fortifications.—The fortifications of the city of Gottenburgh, have lately been very much diminished; they were not only imperfect, as being formed on principles formerly adopted, but they were so extensive, that they were unable to stand more than a week's siege. The principal batteries however, remain. Those of the *Crown* and the *Gothic Lion*, with the citadel of Ny-Elfsburg, situated half a league from the city, on two rocks, in the middle of the river Gotte, the mouth of which it defends. The works of this citadel are strengthening, with great assiduity. The ramparts of Malmoë are also in a progress of demolition: but the citadel will be preserved. By this alteration, six new rows of houses, will be added to the city: in the midst of which will be a public square, to be named *Gustavus Adolphus.*

OBSERVANDA INTERNA.

State of the British Forces.—It appears, from accounts laid before the House of Commons, that the total number of men enrolled in the militia in England, since the first of September, 1807, is Principals, 3.129, Substitutes, 22,956, making together, 26,085. That the effective number of Volunteers in Great Britain on the 1st of December last was, Field Officers, 1,367: Captains, 4,225: Subalterns, 8,485: Staff Officers, 2,548: Serjeants, 15.581: Trumpeters and Drummers, 7,533: Rank and File, 296,609: and that the total effective strength of the Regular and Militia Forces was, on the first of February last, Cavalry, 26,529: Regular Infantry, including Foot Guards, 178,295: Artillery, including Artificers, 24,781: Militia, 77,164.—Total Rank and File, 306,760.

The Trial of General Whitelocke,—This trial has occupied the public attention, and very properly, for a long time: the charges against him have been fully proved, but we cannot spare room for particulars, as a mere abstract, of so long a trial, would occupy a great portion of our number, yet would be wholly unsatisfactory. There are various editions of the trial from five shillings or under to a guinea in price.—It occupied *thirty one* days of real business: with very few adjournments or delays. The following are the charges and the sentence: as confirmed by His Majesty.

First Charge.—That Lieut.-general Whitelocke, having received instructions from His Majesty's principal Secretary of State, to proceed for the reduction of the province of Buenos Ayres, pursued measures ill calculated to facilitate that conquest; that when the Spanish commander had shewn such symptoms of a disposition to treat as to express a desire to communicate with Major-general Gower, the second in command, upon the subject of terms, the said Lieutenant-general Whitelocke did return a message, in which he demanded, amongst other articles, the surrender of persons holding civil offices in the government of Buenos Ayres, as prisoners of war. That the said Lieutenant-general Whitelocke in making such an offensive and unusual demand, tending to exasperate the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres, to produce and encourage a spirit of resistance to His Majesty's arms, to exclude the hope of amicable accommodation, and to increase the difficulties of the service with which he was entrusted, acted in a manner unbecoming to his duty as an officer, prejudicial to military discipline, and contrary to the articles of war.

Second Charge.—That the said Lieutenant general Whitelocke, after the landing of the troops at Ensenada, and during the march from thence to the town of Buenos Ayres, did not make the military arrangements best calculated to ensure the success of his operations against the town, and that having known, previously to his attack upon the town of Buenos Ayres, upon the 5th of July, 1807, as appears from his dispatch of July the 10th, that the enemy meant to occupy the flat roofs of the houses, he did, nevertheless, in the said attack, divide his forces into several brigades and parts, and ordered the whole to be unloaded, and no firing to be permitted on any account; and under this order to march into the principal streets of the town, unprovided with proper and sufficient means for forcing the barricadoes, whereby the troops were unnecessarily exposed to destruction, without the possibility of making effectual opposition; such conduct betraying great professional incapacity on the part of the said Lieutenant-general Whitelocke, tending to lessen the confidence of the troops in the conduct of their officers, being derogatory to the honour of His Majesty's arms, contrary to his duty as an officer, prejudicial to good order and military discipline, and contrary to the articles of war.

Third Charge.—That the said Lieutenant-general Whitelocke did not make, although it was in his power, any effectual attempt, by his own personal exertions or otherwise, to co-operate with or support the different divisions of the army under his command, when engaged with the enemy in the streets of Buenos Ayres, on the fifth of July, 1807, whereby those troops, after having encountered and surmounted a constant and well-directed fire, and having effected the purport of their orders, were left without support or further orders, and considerable detachments under Lieutenant-colonel Duff, and Brigadier-general Craufurd, were thereby compelled to surrender; such conduct on the part of Lieutenant-general Whitelocke tending to the defeat and dishonour of His Majesty's arms, to lessen the confidence of the troops in the skill and courage of their officers, being unbecoming and disgraceful to his character as an officer, prejudicial to good order and military discipline, and contrary to the articles of war.

Fourth Charge.—That the said Lieutenant general Whitelocke, subsequently to the attack upon Buenos Ayres, and at a time when the troops under his command were in possession of posts on each flank of the town, and of the principal arsenal, with a communication open to the fleet, and having an effective force of about five thousand men, did enter into, and finally conclude a treaty with the enemy, whereby he acknowledges in the public dispatch of the 10th July, 1807, that "he resolved to forego the advantages which the bravery of his troops had obtained, and which advantages had cost him about two thousand five hundred men in killed, wounded, and prisoners;" and that by such treaty he unnecessarily and shamefully surrendered such advantages, totally evacuated the town of Buenos Ayres, and consented to deliver up to the enemy the strong fortress of Monte Video, which had been delivered to his charge, and which, at the period of the treaty and abandonment, was well and sufficiently garrisoned and provided against attack, and which was not, at such period, in a state of blockade or seige; such conduct on the part of Lieutenant-general Whitelocke tending to the dishonour of His Majesty's arms, and being contrary to his duty as an officer, prejudicial to good order and military discipline, and contrary to the articles of war.

SENTENCE, &c.

The Court Martial having duly considered the evidence given in support of the charges against the prisoner, Lieutenant-General Whitelocke, his defence, and the evidence he has adduced, are of opinion that he is guilty of the whole of the said charges, with the exception of that part of the second charge which relates to the order that "the columns "should be unloaded, and that no firing "should be permitted on any account."

The Court are anxious that it may be distinctly understood, that they attach no censure whatever to the precaution taken to prevent unnecessary firing during the advance of the troops to the proposed points of attack, and do therefore acquit Lieutenant-General Whitelocke of that part of the said charge.

The Court adjudge, That the said LIEUTENANT-GENERAL WHITELOCKE BE CASHIERED, AND DECLARED TOTALLY UNFIT AND UNWORTHY TO SERVE HIS MAJESTY IN ANY MILITARY CAPACITY WHATEVER.

The King has been pleased to confirm the above sentence, and His Royal Highness the Commander in Chief has received His Majesty's command to direct, that it shall be read at the head of every regiment in his service, and inserted in all regimental orderly books, with a view of its becoming a lasting memorial of the fatal consequences to which officers expose themselves, who, in the discharge of the important duties confided to them, are deficient in that zeal, judgment, and personal exertion, which their sovereign and their country have a right to expect from officers entrusted with high commands.

To his Majesty, who has ever taken a most lively interest in the welfare, the honour, and reputation of his troops, the recent failure of South America has proved a subject of the most heartfelt regret; but it has been a great consolation to him, and his Majesty has commanded it to be intimated to the army, that after the most minute investigation, his Majesty finds ample cause for gratification in the intrepidity and good conduct displayed by his troops lately employed on that service, and particularly by those divisions of the army which were personally engaged with the enemy in the town of Buenos Ayres, on the 5th of July, 1807; and his Majesty entertains no doubt, that had the exertions of his troops in South America been directed by the same skill and energy which have so eminently distinguished his commanders in other quarters of the world, the result of the campaign would have proved equally glorious to themselves and beneficial to their country.——By command of his Royal Highness the Commander in Chief,—HARRY CALVERT, Major-Gen. and Adj. Gen. of the Forces.

Droits of Admiralty.—The account of the Net Proceeds paid into the Registry of the High Court of Admiralty, of all property condemned to His Majesty as Droits, either in right of his Crown, or in right of the office of Lord High Admiral, since the 1st of January 1794, to the present time, has been laid upon the table of the House of Commons, pursuant to the order of the 12th of February last.—The account contains the ships' names, including Dutch, Danish, Spanish, Prussian, Papenburgh, &c.; the masters; the date when the proceeds were brought; the Droits in right of the Crown, and the Droits of the Admiralty, distinguished from each other; and the net proceeds, or balance, remaining on each, amounting in the whole to £723,890 3s. 8½d. and concludes thus:—

Out of these balances there has been paid the sum of	£633,358	1	8
And the balance now remaining amounts to	40,532	2	0½
There have been also paid into the Registry Spanish proceeds condemned to his Majesty, being taken prior to the declaration of the former hostilities against Spain, amounting to £288,302 14s. 5d., which have been all paid out except the sum of	3,217	15	2
Received from the Vice Admiralty Court at Gibraltar, on account of the proceeds of sundry Spanish ships and cargoes, captured prior to hostilities against Spain, and condemned to his Majesty in right of his crown in the said court 315,668 17 2			
Paid pursuant to his Majesty's warrants thereout 224,813 8 4			
Leaving a balance of.....	90,650	8	10
Subject to rewards to be granted to the captors in some of the cases.			
Ditto from the Vice Admiralty Court at Jamaica 16,892 8 1			

Paid pursuant to warrant	£7,656	12	7
Leaving a balance of ...	£9,235	15	6
Ditto from the Vice Admiralty Court at Malta, out of which nothing has yet been paid to the captors	50,000	0	0
Ditto from the Vice Admiralty Court at Bermuda, ditto ...	9,938	2	8
Ditto, from the Vice Admiralty Court at Antigua, ditto	810	14	5
Ditto, from the Vice Admiralty Court at Barbadoes, ditto ...	8,277	1	11
There has been also brought in by the Commissioners for the care and disposal of Spanish property, taken prior to hostilities, as the balance of specie remitted to them from Gibraltar, in the following ships, viz.: Pomona, St. Edward, Cory, Cleopatra, Fuents, Hermosa, the last taken by the Beagle	191,166	14	3
There have been brought in various small sums, as freights of ships detained under the Prussian embargo, amounting to	8,447	19	2
Out of which has been paid and returned	3,038	16	3
Leaving a balance of ...	5,409	2	11
The Commissioners for the care and disposal of Prussian property taken prior to hostilities, are now bringing in the account, sales, and proceeds, of such ships and goods as have been sold by them, the amount brought in is	160,929	13	3
The whole of which is subject to the rewards to be allotted to the actual captors.			
Amount of the Danish freights paid into the Registry.....	3,699	16	7
Balance remaining	£574,067	1	6½

It appears that the whole of the money paid into the Registry of the High Court of Admiralty, from the year 1794, to March, 1808, amounts to

As Droits of the Admiralty.....	£474, 325	11	10
As Droits of the Crown	1,588,484	10	2
A mixed account of both, out of which nothing has been paid to captors	1,051,094	19	2
Making the sum total of all the money paid amount to	3,113,905	1	2
Sum total of all the money drawn by the Royal warrant and otherwise	2,539,837	19	7½
And the balance now remaining is, as above stated, something more than half a million, viz.	574,067	1	6½

The Danish prizes are not included in this return.

Exemption of Duty to Foreigners. It appears, from an account laid before the House of Commons, that the total amount of all exemptions granted to foreigners, in respect of the duty on dividends in the various funds of Great Britain, and on the dividends of the East-India, and South Sea Companies, under the Property Tax, amounted for the four quarters, ending the 5th of April, 1807, to £69,072, 18s. 10d.

Cultivation of Hemp and Merino Wool.—Lord Somerville, in appendix to Mr. Wissett's valuable Treatise on the Culture and Preparation of Hemp, has renewed his patriotic endeavours to call the attention of the Land Owners of Britain, to the importance of growing upon our own soil an ample supply of this valuable commodity. He estimates our annual consumption at 35,000 tons, independent of what may be required for seed, and this quantity he points out the means of raising with great facility, *without any material derangement of our present system of husbandry, so far as regards the growth of corn.* His lordship's communication abounds with observations, political, economical, and practical, worthy the serious attention both of landlords and tenants; and the noble agricul-

tirist enforces his advice, by the strongest of all recommendation,—a reference to his own example.—It is surely unnecessary for us to add, that conduct like this, at all times, but particularly in the present situation of affairs, is far more commendable in the nobility and higher circles, than dancing attendance at the *petits soupers* of a foreign stage singer! And though the tyrant of the continent says we shall have no commerce, yet he will in the end perceive, that he is benefiting this country, by forcing us to call forth such resources as we never imagined in our power; it becomes us here to notice, that Lord Somerville has presented her Majesty with a Merino dress of exquisite delicacy, manufactured from his lordship's prime Merino flock, by Mr. Frederick Smith, of Norwich:—this article, made from English wool, is likely to be much worn by our nobility, and other ladies of fashion.

Fall in the Price of Copper.—Within the last six months, a very considerable fall has taken place in the price of the article of copper: the cause is, the great success of the Ross Island Mining Company at Killarney, who have been able to raise and send to this country during the last year, no less than 73,284 cwt. of copper ore. This is to be considered as one among the many and growing advantages resulting from the Union of this country and Ireland.

Smithfield Market.—The Bishop of London has recommended to the corporation of the city, that the market held in Smithfield on Monday, should be changed to some other day in the week, on the ground that the preparations for the market interferes with the duties of the preceding Sabbath.

Clergy.—Dr. Swabey, and Dr. Adams, advocates of the Court of Arches, have given their decided opinions upon an important question respecting a curate's licence.—"That every licence granted to a curate "terminates on the death of the incumbent "who gave the nomination; that the succeeding rector may nominate any other "clergyman to the cure, and claim a fresh "licence from the Bishop of the Diocese."

Property Improved.—The lease of the house and appendages of Peerless-pool, let 60 years ago, by the governors of St. Bartholomew's Hospital, at £17 per annum, expired a few days since, and another has been granted, at the astonishingly improved rent of £600.

Saxon Coins.—A short time ago, in ploughing a field at Flaxton, near the Lobster House, a leaden box was turned up by the plough, which contained about 300 small Saxon silver coins, in high preservation, some silver rings, and pieces of spurs.

Extraordinary Vine.—This natural curiosity is at Mountsorrel in Leicestershire: it contains about 100 yards in surface, extending from a single stem upwards of 20 yards in length, and about five in height; it is supposed to bear three cwt. of grapes: a considerable quantity of good wine is annually made from it.

Raven at Sea.—A very large raven lighted on board the American ship Edward, lately arrived at Glasgow from Savannah, when 900 miles from land. The Captain had its wings clipt, keeps it as a curiosity, and it feeds with the fowls.—*Globe, March* 8.

Lottery.—The following statement of the produce of Lotteries, for 12 years back, shew that the profits to government have increased since 1802 (when the new regulations took place), to nearly double what they were in the preceding six years, namely, from £1,754,074, to £3,019,894; besides increased profits on incidents, such as postage of letters, stamps, advertisements, &c. which may fairly be taken, for the last six years, at half a million more; thus the whole increased benefit, in six years, is about two millions.

1796 ...	£354,154	1802 ...	£555,000
1797 ...	149,020	1803 ...	352,333
1798 ...	217,990	1804 ...	434,625
1799 ...	263,540	1805 ...	580,624
1800 ...	444,890	1806 ...	601,312
1801 ...	324,480	1807 ...	496,000
	£1,754,074		£3,019,894

Manner of clearing Barns and Outhouses, from Mites and Weevils.—The following method is practised in Germany, for ridding granaries of mites and weevils. Let the walls and rafters, above and below, of such granaries as are infested, be covered completely with quicklime, slacked in water, in which trefoil, wormwood, and hyssop, have been boiled. This composition should be applied as hot as possible. A farmer who had the granaries empty in June last, collected quantities of the largest sized ants in sacks, and scattered them about the places infested with weevils. The ants immediately fell upon and devoured them all.

IRELAND.

New Dock.—The Custom-house Dock of Dublin having been found unequal to the trade of that city, government have determined to accumulate the merchants by another very capacious Dock, eastward of the Custom-house.

A Curious Fact.—Arthur M'Anally, the post-boy between Antrim and Belfast, has, within the last two years, travelled on horseback, 18,080 Irish, and 24,155 English miles; a distance very nearly equal to the circumference of the globe. It is remarkable of this boy, now about 17, that he never tires on horseback, and that he enjoys uninterrupted good health.

PARLIAMENTARY HISTORY.

CHAP. II.—*Papers relating to the Expedition to the Dardanelles—Austria—Russia—Orders of Council—Cold Bath Fields Prison—Petitions for Peace—Lord Lake's Monument—Copenhagen Expedition, etc.*

FEBRUARY 15.—After a long and tedious debate, in the upper house, a motion of Lord Auckland, for going into a committee on the late Orders in Council, was negatived by a division: 106 against 48.

On the same evening, in the House of Commons, Mr. Taylor, with a view of instituting an inquiry into the late expedition to the Dardanelles, moved an address to his Majesty, for a copy of the treaty of alliance concluded between Turkey and Great Britain, Jan. 5, 1799; for a copy of lord Elgin's dispatches, connected with the Turkish treaty with Russia; for a copy of a treaty concluded by Sir Sidney Smith and Mr. Spencer Smith, &c. &c.—Agreed to.

FEBRUARY 16.—Mr. Whitbread moved for a variety of additional papers relating to the proposed Austrian and Russian mediations; particularly the dispatch of lord G. L. Gower, which contained minutes of lord Hutchinson's conversation with the Emperor of Russia, previously to the peace of Tilsit.

Lord Gower, in reply to some of his observations, stated, that, in a conference which he had himself had with the Emperor Alexander, that monarch had, with great warmth, urged the charges, of neglecting to furnish him with military aid, against the late administration of this country. He (lord G.) in that conversation, had stated such reasons as appeared to him to justify the conduct of the late ministers.—He added, that M. Alopeus, the Russian minister in this country, had transmitted a note to his right hon. friend, repeating those charges and even pointing out different parts of the Continent, where a division might have been made. In answer to that note, his right hon. friend had transmitted to M. Alopeus a defence of his Majesty's government; a copy of which he (lord G.) had received whilst in Russia. To him it appeared satisfactory. With respect to the conversation of lord Hutchinson, he had not transmitted it to this country as an official dispatch, from an accredited minister, but, confidentially, as the private conversation of a man, who was in habits of intimacy with the Emperor.

Mr. Canning resisted the production of the dispatch in question, on the same ground. Lord Hutchinson, he contended was no more than any other private gentleman, who might have gone to the court of St. Petersburgh for his own pleasure; and, if a precedent were to be admitted, for receiving *private* communications, it would at any time be in the power of a party to destroy the effect of *official* dispatches.—After further discussion, the motion for lord Gower's dispatch was negatived, without a division; but most of the other papers were granted.

FEBRUARY 18.—Lord Grenville observed, that the Order of Council of Nov. 10, professed to be immediately founded upon information received by ministry, that the decree of the French Emperor had recently been executed with increased rigour. As this averment was at variance with the communication from the American minister of October 18, and with all the accounts which he had been able to collect from any quarter, he conceived it necessary for the satisfaction of parliament, and the justification of ministers, that the substance and dates of such information as they received should be laid on the table.

Lord Hawkesbury opposed the motion on the ground that it would be productive of the most serious injury, both to the public service and to individuals, were ministers to disclose the communications of secret agents or of commercial houses, who might occasionally inform government of facts of importance to the interests of their country.—After some debate, a division took place, and the motion was carried against ministers 47 to 38.

Lord Sidmouth moved a resolution for an address to his Majesty, praying that the ships taken at Copenhagen might be kept in such a state as not to preclude, or put to hazard, the possibility of their being eventually restored, on the conclusion of a general peace.—This motion was negatived, on a division, by 105 to 51.

On the same evening, in the House of Commons, a debate took place on the motion for the second reading of the indemnity bill, relating to the Orders in Council; the principle of which was very ably supported by the advocate general, as a measure of necessity and strict justice. On a division, the second reading was carried by 214 against 94.

Mr. Sheridan brought up a petition, stating a number of abuses which were said to prevail in the Cold-Bath Fields Prison, similar to those which were alledged in the year 1800. In consequence of informality in the instrument, Mr. S. withdrew it, and brought it forward in another form on the succeeding day.—It was stated by ministers, that private applications had been made to them on the same subject: had they been public and regular, government would, ere this, have instituted an enquiry into the alledged abuses.—[Compare Panorama, Vol. III. p. 1307.]

FEBRUARY 22.—Colonel Stanley having presented a petition from a number of the

trading inhabitants of Bolton, in Lancashire, stating the injury and distress which they sustained from the war, and praying that the House of Commons would take such steps, under the sanction of his Majesty, as would accord with the honour and dignity of the nation, in restoring the blessings of peace;—Mr. Canning observed, that no difference whatever existed, either in fact or in opinion, between the petitioners and himself, on the subject of obtaining a peace. He, therefore, not only did not object to the petition lying on the table, but he trusted that the prayer and purport of it never would be out of the eye of the House.—This petition was followed by several others, of a similar description, in the course of the succeeding month.

On the same evening, the Chancellor of the Exchequer moved a prohibitory clause, in the bill before the House, respecting cotton and Peruvian bark, to prevent our exporting them to the enemy's territory.—The latter was strenuously and repeatedly objected to, as a barbarous and inhuman measure; but it was ultimately carried in the lower House, March 18, 73 against 38.

February 24.—In the House of Commons, lord Castlereagh brought down a message from his Majesty, expressing his desire, in consideration of the splendid achievements of the late lord Lake, to settle £2000 per ann. on his son and immediate successor, and on the two next male heirs. His lordship also intimated an intention of proposing the erection of a monument to his lordship's memory. The annuity was subsequently agreed to; but the proposal for a monument was abandoned.

This evening, a select committee was appointed, to enquire into the state of the West India Trade.—A motion of Mr. Tierney's that the House should go into a committee, on the trade and navigation of the country, was negatived.

February 25.—In opposing a motion of Mr. Sheridan respecting the Copenhagen expedition, Mr. Canning contradicted the report, that ministers had endeavoured to violate the treaty of Copenhagen, and the terms of capitulation. He stated that, when the intelligence of the capitulation, and its terms, arrived, two articles of it were not understood. One was that which related to the sequestration of British property; it being doubtful whether all British property was intended, or only what was found in Zealand, and not elsewhere throughout the Danish dominions; this difficulty was referred to the respective commanders on the spot who had signed the capitulation; when, unfortunately, both parties concurred in declaring, that it related only to property found in Zealand; ministers firmly abided by this decision. The other was, whether, by the capitulation, hostilities were wholly to end with Denmark, or only in Zealand, the seat of war. The commanders on both sides declaring that the treaty related to Zealand, only; his Majesty's ministers abided by that also.

February 26.—In consequence of a motion, by Mr. Canning, for copies or extracts of certain letters, which had passed between lord Howick and Mr. Garlicke, in the winter of 1806, respecting any intention of invading Denmark, by the French; (papers, the production of which had been previously refused by ministers, on the motion of Mr. Whitbread) a violent altercation took place, in which Mr. Tierney bore a conspicuous part. Mr. Canning's motion, however, was carried, by 140 against 9.

February 29.—Mr. Whitbread, after entering into an examination of the conduct of ministers, and of the state of the war, contended, that all our efforts to crush the power of France were vain; that we had neglected the means of obtaining peace; that there was no real obstacle to obtaining peace at present; and that, although the existing power of France was gigantic and overwhelming, yet we might await the contingency of events, and had reason to expect, from past experience, that she might meet with some reverse of fortune. Having dwelt for a considerable time on these points, he concluded, with moving three resolutions, the substance of which was:—first, that ministers had neglected an opportunity which they might have improved, after the treaty of Tilsit, and annexed conditions to their acceptance of the mediation of Russia, that they were inexpedient and impolitic. Secondly that their conduct to Austria had been repulsive, and not calculated to improve the opportunity of negociation; and lastly, that it was incumbent on that House to declare, that there was nothing in the circumstances of the present war which should preclude the government from availing itself of any opportunity of entering into a negociation for the restoration of peace.

Mr. Herbert having seconded the motion, Mr. Ponsonby observed, that he concurred with the two first resolutions, but doubted the propriety of putting the third, at present. He agreed with Mr. W. in all the points of his speech; but his third proposition if adopted, would lead to a proceeding on his part of the House, which would be imperative upon government. No minister could delay sending a negociator to France, after such a resolution should have been voted.—Although he did not believe ministers sincere in their desire of peace, he was not disposed to press them at present, because he did not know exactly how the facts were.

Mr. Wilberforce, and lord Milton, agreed with Mr. Ponsonby, that it would be highly impolitic to enter into any resolutions at pre-

sent, which, in their nature, could have a tendency to excite a clamour for peace, an object which, instead of being accelerated, would, by such a proceeding, be greatly retarded.

Mr. Canning expressed his readiness to enter, at any time, into negotiations for such a peace as might be consistent with the honour and dignity of the country; but he maintained, that until certain information should be received that the French government was prepared to enter into negociations on an equitable basis, it would be imprudent to attempt any. The first offer of mediation, on the part of Austria, might have been worthy of attention, if the fortune of Buonaparté had not taken a different turn. The last offer of mediation proved palpably fallacious, and both attempts exploded together. It was the intention of the British government to enter into negotiations for peace, but in the official notes which passed through the hands of Count Stahremberg, the Austrian minister, an ambiguous style was conspicuous, evidently the effort of design.—In examining the propriety of commencing a negociation, it was not only at home that we had to look, but to the views and expectations of the enemy. What were the views of Buonaparté even when he professed his anxiety for peace, and even while at peace with us? Did he not secretly employ every means of excluding our commerce, of discouraging and annihilating our manufactures? Would he allow, if he could help it, the importation of a single yard of cloth, or of any other article of our manufactures? If such were his endeavours against the trade of this country at that time, what must they now be, when he had resolved to ruin the nation, through the ruin of her commerce? Would the cries of those for peace, whom he was more particularly resolved to undo by war, be a motive with him to listen to any terms of peace? On the contrary, would they not encourage him to persevere in the war, as the surest means of accomplishing his ultimate object? Then how could those who professed to be friends to peace attempt to derive any argument in its favour from the distresses or importunities of our manufacturers? Was not the very plea on which they urged their object the most powerful obstacle to obstruct its attainment? He gave the honourable gentleman full credit for being sincere in the opinion he expressed. But he would contend, admitting negociation to be desireable and good, when there was a prospect of its leading to peace, that it was a mischief when it did not afford that prospect.—He then adduced a variety of instances in which the devotion of Russia to France had been apparent, and concluded with giving his negative to the motion.

Mr. Sheridan spoke in favour of all the resolutions, and on a division, the majorities against each resolution were—Against the 1st, 140. Against the 2d, 144. Against the 3d, 139.

On the same evening, in the House of Peers, lord St. John moved five resolutions, importing that the late Orders in Council had been unwise, ought not to have been issued, and were unjustifiable.—The duke of Montrose, after vindicating the principle and operation of the Orders in Council, moved the previous question; which was carried, by 137 against 47; majority 90, in favour of the Orders.

March 3.—Lord Darnley, contending that the attack on Copenhagen, and the seizure of the Danish fleet, was a flagrant act of injustice and immorality, an open violation of the law of nations, and a dereliction of the principles on which Great Britain had hitherto acted, moved an address to his Majesty, stating the injurious tendency of that measure; to prove the necessity of which, the documents laid upon the table were wholly inconsistent and unsatisfactory. This motion was negatived, by 110 against 51; after which lord Elliot proposed a resolution, approving of the above measures, which was carried by 125 against 57.

On the same evening, in the House of Commons, a debate took place respecting the restoration to office, of a Mr. Giffard, who had been removed from his situation of surveyor of the customs in Dublin, during the administration of lord Hardwicke, in consequence of his having opposed the petition for catholic emancipation, in the corporate assembly in Dublin. Sir J. Newport moved for copies of the patent by which he had been appointed to his present office, and of the order by which he had been displaced from his former situation.—Mr. Croaker, in opposing the motion, represented the dismissal of Mr. Giffard as cruel, arbitrary, and unjust; and contended, that his restoration was merely an act of justice. Sir J. Newport's motion was negatived, by 103 against 57.—Lord Hardwicke, in the upper house, subsequently intimated his intention of instituting an inquiry on this subject, as far as it related to his own conduct; but afterwards withdrew his notice of a motion to that effect.

This evening, also, Mr. Calcraft moved for certain papers, to shew the state of Sir Richard Strachan's ships when they went in pursuit of the Rochefort squadron. He spoke with much vehemence against the conduct of the Admiralty, and contended that the ships were destitute of provisions.—Mr. Wellesley Pole entered into a detailed answer to Mr. Calcraft's arguments, shewing that these ships were supplied with abundance of

every thing at the time alluded to. The papers, were most of them ordered.

A debate ensued, on the propriety of receiving a petition from the merchants of Liverpool, against the Orders in Council Bill. On a division, the petition was rejected, on the ground that it was contrary to the forms of the House, to receive a petition against a revenue bill.—Several other petitions, of a similar nature, were subsequently rejected on the same grounds.

March 4.—Mr. Adam, after reprehending the conduct of Mr. Canning, in a recent debate, moved two resolutions, disapproving of the practice of reading extracts from dispatches to, or from, ministers to foreign powers; and censuring it, as contrary to the trust reposed in the Secretary of State by the constitution.—Mr. Canning, in reply, justified his conduct, by quoting instances to shew, that Mr. Pitt, and lord Howick himself, had adopted similar modes of proceeding when requisite.—Mr. Adam's motion was negatived, on the previous question, 108 against 67.

March 7.—Lord Sidmouth, alluding to various captures made on the Danish commerce, previously to any declaration of war of ships already in our ports, wished to be informed, how the proceeds arising from those captures, which he was informed amounted to £2,000,000, were to be applied.—Lord Hawkesbury answered, that the ships so captured had been treated as ships and cargoes of other nations in similar situations had been treated. The crews had been considered as prisoners of war: a cartel had been proposed, on our part, but had not been as yet accepted. He also assured the noble Lord, that the amount of the proceeds was greatly exaggerated.

The same evening, in the Commons, on the motion of Sir F. Burdett there was ordered to be laid before the House an account of the total amount of all sums issued from the registry of the Admiralty under warrants from his Majesty, and arising from the droits of the crown, from 1792 down to the latest periods; together with an account of the balances remaining in the registry.

March 8.—Lord Hawkesbury, in answer to a question from lord Grenville, stated, that an official copy of the treaty between this country and America, together with a dispatch from the late Secretary of State (lord Howick) had been received by the British minister, in America, March 2, 1807; that the Congress,* he believed, separated on the 3d of the same month. His lordship farther stated, that the senate sent a message to the President, expressing a wish to know, whether it were his intention to make any communication to them, previously to their separation; that the answer of the President was in the negative; and that it was generally understood, that the President was displeased with the omission of the article respecting the question of the impress of seamen.

Lord Erskine moved a string of resolutions, expressive of his opinion against the Orders in Council; which were negatived, by the previous question, 127 against 61.

In the House of Commons, on the same evening, in a committee on the mutiny bill, lord Castlereagh moved for the insertion of a clause, "to allow persons who had enlisted for limited service, to enlist for unlimited service, and to permit the enlisting generally for unlimited service."—In prefacing this motion, his lordship took occasion to observe, that the system of limited service had added only between 6000 and 7000 men to the public service, an amount hardly sufficient to cover the deaths, desertions, and casualties. The whole regular force of the country now amounted to 204,000, and in the last four years about 69,000 men had been added to the army; but of these the proportion was very small indeed which Mr. Windham's system had furnished. The expence attendant on the conveyance of every man to India was between £40 and £50; and, if only engaged for seven years, he could not continue above three or four years in that distant region, if he demanded his discharge at the expiration of his period of service; and thus, within that short period, the country would be saddled with an additional expense of at least £100 per man. He wished that a fair option should be presented to the soldier, thinking it preposterous that any man should be prevented from entering the army for life, if he wished it. Out of the 204,000 regulars, at least 70,000 had engaged only for a limited period. All the foreign corps were of this description, with many of those who had lately enlisted from the militia. What would be the inconvenience resulting from limited service, on the supposition that we might have, during peace, an establishment of 100,000 men, of whom perhaps 30,000 were engaged only for a limited period? A war might break out the very year after these men had received their discharge, and in that case the country might be subjected to the most imminent danger, without any immediate means of providing against it.

Mr. Windham very strenuously opposed this motion; but, on a division, it was carried by 169 against 100.—On the 18th of the month, on the motion for going into a committee on this bill, in the house of lords, the duke of Gloucester moved, that the clause above noticed should be struck out; but his motion was negatived, without a division. On the following evening on the motion for reading the bill a third time, lord Grey made a similar motion, which was also negatived, without a division; after which the bill was passed.

POLITICAL PERISCOPE.

Panorama Office, March 26, 1807.

The prominent political circumstances of the present month are, the irruption of the Russians into Finland, and the declaration of the Danes against Sweden: to these must eventually be added, there can be no doubt, the same conduct on the part of Prussia. War is a serious evil; and when undertaken for light or insufficient causes, becomes a weight of guilt on the conscience of those who command it. War is the scourge of Heaven on human depravity; but, those who rouse this scourge to activity, or who wield it with gratification are highly presumptuous, and criminal. Self-defence is not, in this sense, active war: self-defence is a dictate of nature; self-defence therefore is not blameable: but those aggressions which produce the necessity for self-defence, must answer for all the calamities which follow them, whether intentionally or incidentally. Believing, as we do, that Britain is engaged at this instant not in a war of aggression, but in defensive resistance: that Sweden had given no real cause of aggression to Russia, &c. other than what they thought proper to affix to her steady opposition to the views of Bonaparte, on this country—we regret exceedingly, the violence to which she is exposed, but we believe it to be a suffering in the virtuous cause of her own independence. We have read the Russian and Danish manifestoes with attention; yet discern in them no cause of quarrel, but the refusal of Sweden to join her forces with those of her present foes to answer the purposes of the French Dictator. They will not suffer her to be neutral: they will have her ships and her troops employed against this country. Who now can affect to say, that the ships of Denmark, and the troops of Denmark, would have been allowed to maintain the neutrality of that state? and that, no hostilities from Russia and France would have assaulted that country; in order to force her to comply with the same arbitrary mandate, as they are now *serving* on Sweden? The fact is, that at the nod of their tyrant, these countries are doing that which, perhaps, their very ablest statesmen can palliate only by the consideration, that it is, *in their present situation*, unavoidable:

> And with NECESSITY,
> The tyrant's plea, excuse their devilish deeds.

We trust, that we may place implicit confidence in the repeated declarations of our ministers, that Great Britain has not drawn Sweden into this snare: that she has exerted no influence over her councils, in order to sway them to this step. It is impossible in the nature of things, that any foreign power should have advised Sweden, to *attack* Russia, Denmark, and Prussia: or that such an intention should have been manifested in the remotest degree by Sweden. On the contrary, the King of Sweden affirms in his Declaration, and we know it to be true, from our private intelligence, at the time, that Sweden was offered by Bonaparte, ALL the provinces which she ever possessed, where the Russian empire is now fixed: together with such others as she might think agreeable, and specificially desire. This was supposed to be, and really must be, from circumstances, the greatest temptation that could possibly be proposed to a King of Sweden; yet this his Majesty rejected: and not only, rejected, but we have authority for saying *with contempt*: urging very truly, that he who offered to give them had neither property in them, nor authority over them.—Had the King of Prussia behaved with equal honour, and integrity, he, most probably, never would have fallen; —but, had he fallen, he most certainly would not have sunk into that merited disgrace, in which the scorn of his contemporaries manifests itself by the question—*who pities him?* Prussia resembles a bankrupt, who not being able to account to his creditors for the property which he is accused of having embezzled, hangs down his head, after the commission against him is in exercise, and exists by sufferance, not by good will. While other potentates, equally sufferers under the appointments of providence, may cheerfully appeal to their *books*; and shew *all fair*; though they are not able to add, all successful. The alliance of Britain with Sweden has been shewn to be something more than an empty name, by a subsidiary treaty, in virtue of which Sweden is to receive *one hundred thousand pounds* monthly, for twelve months. To a country poor in the precious metals, as Sweden is, this assistance is considerable.

On the issue of this contest we give no opinion: and, in fact, we believe that opinions are not uniform: some supposing, that in conjuction with the British fleet, Sweden

may make not only a vigorous, but an effectual resistance. It is certain, that the exertions of Sweden in favour of the Turks, when the last contest happened between Sweden and Russsa, were of essential benefit to the Ottomans, though not to Sweden, herself. Had she permitted the Russian fleet then sailing for the Mediterranean, to quit the Baltic, there is no saying what effect might have attended her enterprises. As it was, she suffered under a superiority, which she could not prevent; because that very fleet which she kept in the Baltic was directed against her.

There is no essential difference, as to principle, between the manifesto of Denmark and that of Russia. They both assume the authority of making Sweden conform to their dictates, *nolens volens*.

Russia is preparing for the Indian expedition. What we might have said on this subject, has been anticipated in our first article this month. Not only has the court of Persia been prevailed on to countenance this undertaking, but an embassy of a covert kind has been sent forward from Persia to China, to inform the Emperor of China, that such and such things are approaching, together with a hint, perhaps, that a province or two are at his service, *if he pleases*. Never was there an occasion on which the fortitude of resistance was the essence of wisdom, more plainly than on this. We presume that we have no need to caution the court of Pekin, as to the propriety and necessity of repelling those "who cast about firebrands, arrows, and death, and consider it all as sport." It is understood, that the history of the French revolution was well known by the late emperor; and that his determination, in consequence, was *not to have any thing to do with Europeans*. He, therefore, granted them no further favours: and though Bonaparté has no overplus of Christianity for exportation, yet the late conduct of the courts of the Empire, and of the emperor himself, on the subject of Christianity in his dominions, seen in the light in which he must see them, offer no inducement to him to enter into any engagements with powers denominated "most Christian," and affecting to rule all Christendom.

To return to the consideration of Europe. We learn that the King of Denmark is recently deceased: but the Crown Prince has been so long king, in effect, that this event will make no difference in politics. The commerce of Denmark, is interrupted, and indeed, suspended by its war with Britain, who was the purchaser of timber, and deals, with many other commodities from Norway. These returns are now stopped; as well as those from the Danish settlements in the East and West Indies.

The subject next in order in point of interest, is, the controversy between this country and America. Our governors have received information, very lately, as to the state of this negociation; but they very prudently preserve the most profound silence on the doubtful points which it includes. There is every reason to think that France will be worsted in this collision, because the good sense of America has had time to come in with effect, and to do essential service. The noise once made, has subsided; the passions once heated have been cooled, the sedate judgment of the rational part of her citizens is taking its due place, and even the feelings, themselves, have been induced to add their power to that of the understanding. American commodities, by lying on the hands of the producing country, under the general embargo, are sunk in value more that half; and they must sink still lower, if no means of exporting them should present itself.

The sentiments that have been avowed by the island of Jamaica have given very little satisfaction in Britain; but, Britain hitherto has considered them, as the *squeel* of a party suffering the pain of the moment, rather than the sedate expression of deeply seated anguish. The opinion that we formerly gave of the injudicious forwardness with which some planters had loaded their estates, by purchasing slaves, gains ground, and is considered by the best informed, as one cause of the pressure, under which sland properties labour. It is even said, that three cargoes of slaves which arrived at Jamaica, a short time since, could find no purchasers: which is absolutely a phenomenon in that island.

The Mediterranean powers are pretty much on the same terms, with this country, as before. It makes no great difference to us whether the Pope resides at Rome, or elsewhere. The fate of Spain approaches rapidly: the principal *ports* of that kingdom are filled with French troops.

BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS.

FROM THE 20TH OF FEBRUARY TO THE 20TH OF MARCH.

BIRTHS.

Of Sons.

In Portman-square, the lady of Sir Wm. Blackett
Lady F. G. Osborne
The lady of J. Beadon, Esq. son to the Bishop of Bath and Wells
At Exeter, the lady of Lieut. Col. Watson
At Ensham House, Dorset, the lady of Brigadier General Munro
At Edinburgh, Lady Jemima Johnstone Hope

Of Daughters.

At Blithfield, Staffordshire, the Right Hon. Lady Bagot

MARRIAGES.

W. S. Bourne, Esq. M. P. to Miss Bowles, of North Aston, Oxfordshire
R. M. Atty, Esq. of Whitby, Yorkshire, to the youngest daughter of the Rev. W. Willis, Archdeacon of Wells
C. L. Phipps, Esq. of Leigh-house, Wilts, to Miss S. Hales, daughter and co-heiress of the late Sir P. Hales, Bart.
T. Creaser, Esq. of Gaystreet, Bath, to the Hon. Mrs. Rochford
At St. George's, Hanover-square, — Hoare, Esq. to Miss Dering, eldest daughter of Sir Edward Dering, Bart.
At Portarlington, near Dublin, Lieut. Colonel O'Hara, to Miss Thwaits, daughter of the late G. Thwaits, Esq.
B. Sowerby, Esq. to Miss Hortle, daughter of the late Col. Hortle, of the East-Indies
Major Heisland to Miss Emerton, of Welbeck-street
Major Aloes to Miss Hope, of the Tower
The Rev. Dr. Hind, Vicar of Findon, to Mrs. Bennett, of Chilton Foliatt, Wilts

DEATHS.

Lord Lake, of a cold caught by attending Gen. Whitelock's trial
The Right Hon. Lady Falmouth
At White Roding, Essex, the Rev. Sir W. Chere, Bart. aged 72
Sir James Du Bath, Bart. of Kingstown, Ireland
The Rev. J. Vinsicombe, B. D. Senior Fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford
At the house of his grandfather, the Duke of Buccleugh, Lord Scott, son of the Earl of Dalkeith
At Shipston-on-Stour, the Viscountess Dowager Ashbrooke
At Cheltenham, the widow of the Hon. T. Freeman
At Ham Common, aged 82, the Hon. Mrs. Chetwynd
In Park-lane, the Earl of Dorchester
Sir Giles Rooke, one of the Justices of the Common Pleas
In Gloucester-place, Lady Martin
At Christ's College Lodge, Cambridge, the Rev. Dr. Barker
Mrs. Barker, who was nearly of the same age, was so much affected at her husband's death, as to survive him only one day
At Cartside House, Colonel Napier, of Milliken
In Innes, the Rev. Dr. James Barrett, Titular Dean of Ritlatoe
At Windsor, Mrs. Buckle, relict of the late Admiral Buckle
In Catherine-place, Bath, the Marchioness of Longchamp
At Shepperton, Mrs. Anne Horsley, sister to the late Bishop of St. Asaph
In Berner's-street, Mrs. Stanley, relict of J. Stanley, Esq. many years Attorney General of the Island of St. Christopher
At Bath, C. Flower, Esq. of Portland-place
At his house, West Ham, Essex, G. Gregory, D. D.
At Clifton, near Bristol, the Right Hon. the Dowager Countess of Fingal, at a very advanced age
In Upper Berkeley-street, the Hon. Emma Cartwright
At Southampton, C. A. Butler, eldest daughter of Lieut. Col. Butler
At Hampton Court Palace, the Hon. Jane Corey, aged 74 years
In Newman-street, the Rev. P. Du Val, D. D.

MILITARY PROMOTIONS.

STAFF, &c. IN 1808.

FEB. 10.—*Ordnance-Office—Royal Regiment of Artillery*—Col. Robt. Lawson to be col. commandant; lieut. col. Edw Stehlin to be col.; maj. Robt. Wright to be lieut. col.; capt. Jas. Viney to be maj.; lieut. col. J. A. Schalch to be col.; maj. J. Maclean to be lieut. col.; capt. R. W. Uniet to be maj.; lieut. col. H. Hutton to be col.; maj. J. Harris to be lieut. col.; maj. G. A. Wood to be lieut. col.; capt. R. Beevor to be maj.; maj. R. Dickenson to be lieut. col.; capt. F. Griffiths to be maj.; maj. T. Charleton to be lieut. col.; capt. Chas. Newhouse to be major

FEB. 23—*52d Regiment of Foot*—Lieut. col. J. Ross, from the 91st foot, to be lieut. col.

91st Ditto—Lieut. col. K. Mackenzie, from the 52d foot, to be lieut. col.

8th West India Regiment—Brevet lieut. col. Jas. Willock, from half pay of the late 95th foot, to be maj.

Brevet—Capt. J. Nunns, of the 59th foot, to be maj. in the army; capt. S. Berkeley, of the 16th foot, to be maj. in the army

FEB. 27—*Garrisons*—Gen. Wm. Viscount Howe, K. B. to be governor of Plymouth, vice Lord Lake, deceased; and lieut. gen. B. Tarleton to be governor of Berwick, vice Lord Howe

MARCH 8—*42d Regiment of Foot*—Maj. John Farquharson to be lieut. col; capt. T. Johnson to be major

Garrison—Col. Wm. Dickson, of the 42d foot, to be lieut. governor of Cork

MARCH 12—*Brevet*—Capt. John Boland, of the 3d foot, to be major in the army

UNIVERSITY PROCEEDINGS AND PROMOTIONS.

Oxford.

Feb. 26. Rev J. Griffith, Master of University coll. M. A. and Student in Divinity, admitted B. D. Same day T. Jones, B. A. of Trinity coll., Dublin, incorporated B. A.

March 1. Rev. J. Griffith, Master of University coll. and B. D. admitted D. D. Rev. J. Quarington, of Pembroke coll., and Rev. F. Gardiner, of Lincoln coll. B. A. admitted M. A. Messrs. W. Munden and T. Metcalfe, of Merton coll.; C. Keyfall, T. T. Whitaker, A. Hordern, and F. W. Dwartis, of University coll.; J. Fletcher, of Exeter coll; and J. R. Lyon, of Brasenose coll., admitted B. A.

— 7. Rev. T. Lee, B. D. rector of Barton, Warwickshire, and late Fel. and Tutor of Trinity coll., elected President of that society.

— 9. J. Moore, Esq. of Christ church, admitted B. A. grand compounder. Same day Rev. J. Kendall; Messrs. G. A. Seymer, of Oriel coll.; J. H. Rudge, of Pembroke; J. Darby, M. S. Wall, G. G. V. Vernon, R. Marnell, T. Longlands, and J. T. James, of Christ church, admitted B. A.

Cambridge.

Feb. 16. J. W. Geldart, Esq. LL.B. of Trinity hall, elected a Skirne Fel. of Catharine hall.

Mr. H. W. Tancred, B. A. of Jesus coll., is elected Fel. of that society.

— 29. Sir B. Harwood, M D. Professor of Anatomy and Physick, in Downing coll., commenced his annual Course of Lectures on Comparative Anatomy and Physiology, at the Anatomical Schools, opposite Queen's coll.

Rev. T. Browne, B.D. Fel and Tutor of Christ's coll., elected Master of that society, in the room of the late Dr. Barker.

Mr. Wm Hepworth, B. A. of St. John's, admitted B. A.

March 4. The Hon. W. Cust, of St. John's, brother to Lord Brownlow, admitted Hon. M. A.

— 9. Rev. H. Marsh, B. D. Lady Margaret's Professor, and late Fel. of St. John's, and Rev. E. Pearson, B. D. Master of Sidney, admitted D. D. by royal mandate.

Mr. N. R. Clarke, B. A. of Trinity, elected Fel. of Christ's coll.

— 10. Rev. W. Gee, B. A. of St. John's, and Mr. R. Jefferson, B. A. of Sidney coll., elected Fells. of the latter society.

John Kaye, Esq. Fel. of Christ coll., the Senior Wrangler and First Medalist in 1804, is appointed Tutor of that coll., in room of Rev. T. Browne, the new Master.

The subjects for the dissertations for the Bishop of London's medals in Christ coll., are this year proposed by his lordship, and are as follow:—For the Latin, "*Doctrina Redemptionis universalis per mortem Christi ex sacris Scripturis patet.*"—For the English, "*Foolish and unlearned questions avoid, knowing that they do gender strifes, &c. &c.*" 2d Tim. ch. ii. v. 23, 24, 25.

Mr. H. Bickersteth and Mr. J. White, B. A. of Caius coll, are elected Fells. of that society.

Rev. R. Venables, B. D. one of the Sen. Fells. of Clare hall, is presented by Oley's Trustees to the vicarage of Warmfield, Yorkshire, vacant by cession of Rev. H. Wastell.

The Bishop of Lincoln has presented Rev. Mr. Feilde, late of Pembroke hall, Camb. to the vicarage of Lancing, Sussex.

Rev. P. Haddon, vicar of Leeds, has nominated the Rev. R. Foster, M. A. curate of the parish church, to the chapelry of Hunslet, (the Rev. T. Barber, senior curate, having declined the acceptance of it) in the room of Rev. J. Milner, clerk, deceased.

Rev. W. H. Neale, M. A. curate of St. James's church, Leeds, is elected Head Master of the Free Grammar School at Beverley.

A dispensation has passed the great seal, enabling Rev. T. Fawcett, of Christ church, Oxf. M. A. rector of Bradden, Notts, and diocese of Peterborough, and chaplain to Lord Southampton, to hold the living of Aynho, in the same diocese and county.

Rev. W. Collett is presented to the living of Swanton Morley, by Sir J. Lombe, vacated by death of Rev. J. Larwood.

Rev. F. Hotham is presented to the valuable living of Dennington, Suffolk, vacated by resignation of Rev. Mr. Long, now rector of Pulham.

Rev. J. Storer, B A. late of Christ church, Oxf. has been instituted by the Archbishop of York, to the rectory of Hawksworth, in Notts.

Rev. J. Baines, M. A. of Christ's coll., has been presented, by the Earl of Guildford, to the vicarage of Burwell, Camb., vacated by death of Rev. H. Turner.

The Lord Bishop of Lincoln has been pleased to appoint Rev. T. Braud, M. A. late of Christ's coll., chaplain to his lordship, and rector of Waythe near Ripon, Chancellor and Residentiary of the cathedral church of Lincoln; and collated Rev. C. Illingworth, rector of Scampton and Epworth, to the archdeaconry of Stow, and prebend of Liddington, in the same cathedral church: both vacant by death of Rev. R. Wharton.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

SIR,——The diseases I have to enumerate this month may be generally classed under the heads of MEASLES, and other *eruptions, whooping cough, inflamed eyes, scrophula, asthma, bowel complaints, worms, tumours, ulcers, chilblains,* "common COLD," with all its attendant effects of *fever, cough,* &c. &c. &c. and in a far more than *usual* degree, that aggravated and dangerous state of it—CONSUMPTION; which in all its various stages, has prevailed in greater and more alarming proportion than it has been known to do, for a very long time: its symptoms and danger being more generally and fatally influenced by those *easterly* * *winds,* which have of late much prevailed. To these I shall add, from my own private practice, some very aggravated cases of *jaundice* and *consumption.* On this account I shall select

* From the information of a very intelligent young lady, I find the *thermometer* seldom exceeded 30; but afterwards suddenly rose to 43 in one day.

CONSUMPTION as the most appropriate subject for the following general observations of this report.

I am, Sir, your's, &c.

New Kent Road, C. PEARS.
March, 1808.

The general prevalence and fatal tendency of CONSUMPTION in this country, renders it an object of the most serious regard, and always entitled to the most attentive consideration. *Every* individual may be said to be *personally* interested in it, because almost all have felt its effects either in themselves, or in their friends; and in *such* a variable climate as that of Britain, and under such constant exposure to its effects, who can be called secure, or exempt from its influence? No other disease is so common; none more fatal! yet with such opportunities for *experience* and *observation*, why is the general result of its common treatment, as hitherto usually pursued, so peculiarly unfortunate? Is it from the unyielding and obstinate nature of the circumstances which produce and encourage it? or, are we rather to seek for these effects in an improper adherence to, and perseverance in a mode of treatment, which every day's experience, and the result of every case, so decidedly *proves* to be fallacious, and *contradictory* to the nature and indications of the disease? If a general line of practice has been uniformly and decidedly ineffectual, surely it is a sufficient warrant to seek such other modes, as at least *cannot* be worse, and *may* be better. If the *regular practitioner* be so blindly wedded to system, that he peremptorily refuses to leave a theory, *because* he was taught it in the schools, and which every day's experience refutes for its absurdity, Nature may be discarded as an useless and ineffectual teacher, and those whose prime concern it should be to watch and improve by her unerring instructions, must infallibly become the dupes of their own temerity. Not so easily, however, does the patient escape, for confined to certain *rules of* ART, in direct *opposition* to those of *Nature*, he falls a sacrifice, to an ill-placed confidence on a misnomer; and following those who grasp at the shadow, and lose the substance, disappointment and death must be the inevitable consequence. Under these circumstances, we find only those recover, who have (most wisely and consistently) DISobeyed the rules, by which they were to have been confined; and the attendant parents and friends, most *naturally* perceiving what the *theory of* ART, *prevents* the medical attendant from seeing, have as judiciously concluded that such an exhaustion of strength, and expenditure of natural power, was only and *necessarily* to be recovered by invigorating means; and erefore have neglected those debilitating urces, which were not only *enjoined*, but rsevered in, even while the poor and emaciated patient has been absolutely sinking under their use daily and visibly before them. As the present mode of practice does not allow of a deviation from this common rule, so when empiricks have ventured to adopt a different plan in solitary cases, even *they* have found greater success attend them, than regular practice could ensure: how important then is it to attend to the *nature* of the disease, and regulate the *treatment* by such indications as are thus pointed out to us. *Every* symptom of CONSUMPTION, *proves* it to be founded in *debility*. How then can *debilitating means* ensure recovery? The action thrown *upon* and excited *in* the lungs, the irritation (called fever *), the night perspirations, loss of appetite, emaciation, expectoration, general and encreasing debility, all and each of them, evince the *nature* and tendency of the disease; the shock that nature has received; the injury she sustains, and the only obvious and natural means of cure: by restoring the strength, and healthy functions of the constitution. Is this to be done by debilitating the person still more? Is an *encrease*, *continuance* and *extension* of those means which have induced the disease, a very probable or natural mode of *removing* it? Is an exhaustion of *strength* the way to recover a patient, whose illness arises from the *want* of it? Why then is it persevered in? The irritation *called* fever, is said to be founded in *high* action: the *pulse*, and *every other* indication, *prove* the reverse. The pulse is quick, but it is *weak*; as every quick pulse must be: and if this (consumptive) pulse indicates high action, and too much health, then are we in the best state of health, at the very moment of death; for then is our pulse necessarily and unavoidably *quicker* and *weaker* than ever—because our weakness and dissolution *make* it so. On the other hand, we find that every invigorating means produces a corresponding good effect, in relieving and subduing the symptoms, according to the state of which, both FOOD and MEDICINE must be directed with this view, and to do which is all that the practitioner is called upon to regulate. Thus is the strength of the patient induced, and his recovery insured; while the debilitating and fatal means of *bleeding* and *starving*, proportionally hasten and secure his premature dissolution. Had I not so frequently witnessed these effects, I should not have troubled the public with any CASES or *observations* respecting them.† In illustration of these principles, I could adduce several instances from the practice of this month.

(To be continued.)

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* See the Report on Fever, in a former number of the Panorama.

† See Cases of *Consumption* successfully treated, &c. with Observations by C. Pears, F. L. S. &c. &c. &c.

Bankrupts and Certificates between Feb. 2, and March 20, 1808, with the Attorneys, extracted correctly from the London Gazette.

BANKRUPTCY SUPERSEDED.

Wilkins, J. and Lacey, T. Basinghall street, factors.
Mordue, W. South place, Kennington, ship owner.
Wilkins, J. and Lacey, T. factors.
Johnson, J. Twickett's Mills, Northamptonshire, miller.
Kenworthy, C. and E. and Clough, J. Halifax, Cork, cotton spinners.

BANKRUPTS.

Ainsworth, W. Stockport, cotton spinner. *Att.* Dicas, Stockport.
Able, L. Dean street Soho, victualler. *Att.* Parker & Co. Essex street, Strand.
Armson, J. Eyton, Salop, miller. *Att.* Smith, Wolverhampton.
Andrews, H. Canterbury, seedsman. *Att.* Plummer, Canterbury.
Barreto, V. A. S. Liverpool, merchant. *Att.* Palmer, Birmingham.
Boyd, T. Edgware road, grocer. *Att.* Day and Co. Cullum street, Fenchurch street.
Bunn, T. Norwich, corn merchant. *Att.* Hister and Co. Lincoln's inn.
Brefit, J. Alfreton, Derbyshire, mercer. *Att.* Hall, Alfreton.
Ball, W. Bush lane, Cannon street, broker. *Att.* Taylor, Old street road.
Bushy, W. and Hill, I., Strand, hatters. *Att.* Godmond, New Bridge street.
Biyth, E. Lowth, Lincolnshire, merchant. *Att.* Paddison, Lowth.
Burge, J. Castle Carey, Somersetshire, stocking maker. *Att.* Dyne, Bruton.
Barclay, J. Old Broad street, merchant. *Att.* Lodington & Co. Secondaries office, King's Bench Walks, Temple.
Burgess, W. G., Lockyer, J. T. and Gill, R. Bristol, linen drapers. *Att.* Stephens, Bristol.
Bower, J. C. Ledbury, Herefordshire, milliner. *Att.* Lay and Co. Upton upon Severn.
Belcher, E. Liverpool, merchant. *Att.* Massey, Liverpool.
Bedford, W. and Sumner, S. Foster lane, wholesale linen drapers. *Att.* Drake, Old Fish street, Doctors' Commons.
Briggs, D. Watercliough, Yorkshire, clothier. *Att.* Blackburn, Leeds.
Bacon, W. Sheffield, grocer. *Att.* Rodgers, Sheffield.
Brown, J. Tavistock, house builder. *Att.* Bray, Tavistock.
Batty, J. Primrose street, Bishopsgate street, straw hat manufacturer. *Att.* Pearce and Co. Paternoster row.
Bamford, J. Manchester, grocer. *Att.* Duckworth and Co. Manchester.
Boucher, C. Southampton row, Bloomsbury, bookseller. *Att.* Watkins and Co. Stone buildings, Lincoln's Inn.
Cookesley, R. Poole, Montgomeryshire, timber merchant. *Att.* Nicholls, Poole.
Cowley, J. Sheffield, Yorkshire, cutler. *Att.* Rimington & Co. Sheffield.
Cuss, W. Pontefract, Yorkshire, miller. *Att.* Towns, Pontefract.
Clemence, M. Craven street, Strand, taylor. *Att.* Hamilton, Tavistock row, Covent Garden.
Crocker, G. Bideford, Devonshire, ship builder. *Att.* Bembridge and Co. Barnstaple.
Cole, J. Fore street, stationer. *Att.* Pullen, Fore street.
Crowther, J. Barkisland, Yorkshire, corn dealer. *Att.* Howarth, Rippenden, Halifax.
Cheetham, J. Failworth, Lancaster, manufacturer. *Att.* Nabb, Manchester.
Charmilly, P. F. V. Somerset street, Portman square, coal merchant and distiller. *Att.* Collett and Co. Chancery lane.
Claypole, E. Chatham, shopkeeper. *Att.* T. and W. Nettleship, Grocers' Hall.
Crockett, T. Oxford, dealer. *Att.* Robinson, Oxford.
Davies, A. and N. Little Carter lane, Doctors' Commons, warehousemen. *Att.* Sudton, Monmouth yard.
Dawes, C. Huntingdon, sadler. *Att.* Wells, Huntingdon.
Downs, W. A. Brewer street, Golden square, undertaker. *Att.* Dyne, Serjeant's Inn.
Duffield, G. York buildings, Bermondsey New Road. *Att.* Cross, King street, Southwark.
Dyer, R. Bath, cornfactor. *Att.* Sheppard, Bath.
Dickens, T. Gloucester street, Hoxton, baker. *Att.* Sheffield, Prescot street.
Drewry, W. jun. Falkingham, Lincolnshire, carpenter. *Att.* Worth, Hobling.
Edgington, R. sen. Abingdon, Berkshire, hemp manufacturer. *Att.* Morland, Abingdon.
Elfe, G. Sutton, Nottinghamshire, hosier. *Att.* Walkden, Mansfield.
Ellis, S. Folkingham, Lincolnshire, woollen draper. *Att.* Tottie, Leeds.
Ellis, J. Horbling, Lincolnshire, grocer. *Att.* Worth, Horbling.
Ellams, J. Manchester, bricklayer. *Att.* Morgan, Manchester.
East, S. B. Old Jewry, factor. *Att.* Swain and Co. Old Jewry.
Eardley, E. Exeter, dealer in glass. *Att.* Turner, Exeter.
Evans, W. Wootton, Oxfordshire, butcher. *Att.* Haynes, Adderbury, Oxfordshire.
Fossey, J. Dunstable, Bedfordshire, straw hat manufacturer. *Att.* Birkett, Bond court, Walbrook.
Foreshaw, A. Whitechapel, High street, victualler. *Att.* Noy, Mincing lane.
Ford, W. Pickett street, Temple Bar, auctioneer. *Att.* Hughes, Bear Yard, Lincoln's Inn fields.
Gray, T. Rumford, innholder. *Att.* Terry, Rumford.
Grieveson, J. sen. Newcastle upon Tyne, vintner. *Att.* Clayton and Co. Newcastle upon Tyne.
Geil, E. and A. Wirksworth, Derbyshire, grocers. *Att.* Swettenham, Wirksworth.
Guest, E. Birmingham, grocer. *Att.* Lowe, Birmingham.
Grey, F. Monkwearmouth, coalfitter. *Att.* Davidson, Bishop Wearmouth.
Graham, J. Chorley, and Harrison, J. Prescot, Lancashire, liquor merchants. *Att.* Startisant, Preston.
Green, R. C. Lincoln's Inn, money scrivener. *Att.* Dawes, Angel court, Throgmorton street.
Hyde, A. Brandon, Suffolk, liquor merchant. *Att.* Fuller, Brandon.
Hall, F. Jermyn street, cordwainer. *Att.* Palmer, Barnard's inn, Holborn.
Hurry, N. and Jones, C. H. Liverpool, merchants. *Att.* Lace and Co. Liverpool.
Harvey, J. Springfield, Essex, bricklayer. *Att.* Copland, Chelmsford.
Horley, R. Epsom, pork butcher. *Att.* Guy, Epsom.
Heaton, D. widow, Heaton, M. J. and W. Springhead, Yorkshire, cotton twist spinners. *Att.* Delafare, Kighley.
Hill, B. Little St. Martin's lane, Westminster, man's mercer. *Att.* Cockayne and Co. Fore street, Cripplegate.
Hargreave, O. and Goodwin, J. Manchester, merchants. *Att.* Cheshyre and Co. Manchester.
Humphreys, R. Stamford, Lincolnshire, linen draper. *Att.* Thompson, Stamford.
Hutchinson, R. Manchester, joiner. *Att.* Morgan, Manchester.
Heppell, J. Monkweremouth, Durham, sail maker. *Att.* Thompson, Bishop Wearmouth.
Hartley, J. Kendal, Westmoreland, shoemaker. *Att.* Wilson and Sons, Kendal.
Holdsworth, W. Addingham, Yorkshire, flax spinner. *Att.* Jackson, Hull.
Haydon, J. Mitcham, Surrey, butcher. *Att.* Smith & Co. Barber's Hall, Monkwell street.
Heginbotham, W. M. Manchester, cotton spinner. *Att.* Newton, Heaton Norris.
Hiley, J. Leeds, dealer. *Att.* Lee, Leeds.
Hamlin, R. Tottenham court road, victualler. *Att.* Hutchinson and Co. Addle street.
Hollyer, J. Coventry, ribbon manufacturer. *Att.* Troughton, Coventry.
Holroyd, R. Sowerby, Yorkshire, woollen manufacturer. *Att.* Wiglesworth and Co. Halifax.
Holden, J. and J. Salford, dyers. *Att.* Heslop, Manchester.
Hillman, W. Waltham Cross, Herts, grocer. *Att.* Reynolds, Castle street, Falcon square.
Holmes, T. Hersham, nurseryman. *Att.* Clarke, Sadlers' hall, Cheapside.
Hartland, W. jun. Bristol, house carpenter. *Att.* Baynton and Co. Bristol.
Inglish, J. and G. Preston, drapers. *Att.* Blackstock, Liverpool.
Jones, R. Gower street, Whitechapel, silk winder. *Att.* Bland, Racquet court, Fleet street.
Jarman, P. and T. Llanfihangel Brympabean, Brecon, wool dealers. *Att.* Evans, Rhayader, Radnor.
Jones, J. Eccles, Lancashire, alehouse keeper. *Att.* Milne and Co. Manchester.
Jones, A. Portsea, slopseller. *Att.* Isaacs, Mitre court, Aldgate.
Kinch, H. jun. and Kinch, J. Fareham, timber merchants. *Att.* Paddon and Co. Fareham.
Luck, M. otherwise Sears, St. Martin's le Grand, dealer. *Att.* Fryett, Millbank street, Westminster.
Lay, J. B. Manchester, cotton manufacturer. *Att.* R. R. & C. Jackson, Manchester.
Lomax, S. Tonge, in Prestwich, Lancashire, victualler. *Att.* Woodcock, Bury.
Leach, W. Horton, Yorkshire, wool stapler. *Att.* Hallstone and Co. Bradford.

Lyo s, S. Ormond House Academy, Chelsea, dealer. *Att.* Benton, Union street, Southwark.
Lund, C. L. Old Jewry, factor. *Att.* Swain and Co. Old Jewry.
Lewis, L. Newcastle upon Tyne, linen draper. *Att.* Swain and Co. Old Jewry.
Lewis, L. and Rudd, F. Newcastle upon Tyne, milliners. *Att.* Lambert, Newcastle.
Macfadzen, I. Liverpool, merchant. *Att.* Cramp and Co. Liverpool.
Mount, R. and Roberts, W. Angel court, merchants. *Att.* Blunt and Co. Old Pay Office, Broad street.
Makeham, J. Upper Thames street, cheesemonger. *Att.* Wild, Warwick square, Newgate street.
Maclachlan, J. Harford place, Drury lane, cabinet maker. *Att.* Surman, Golden square.
Merrefield, J. Grantham, money scrivener. *Att.* White, Grantham.
Marun, J. Louth, Lincolnshire, ship carpenter. *Att.* Galland, Kingston upon Hull.
Morris, W. Manchester, leather seller. *Att.* Kearsley and Co. Manchester.
Marshall, W. Newark upon Trent, draper. *Att.* Mason, St. Michael's Alley, Cornhill.
Mason, W. H. Heartly place, Kent road, paper hanger. *Att.* Rippon, Grange road.
Moon, J. Manchester, and Maymon, W. Haslingden, Lancashire, cotton manufacturers. *Att.* Duckworth & Co. Manchester.
Miles, J. Bermondsey street, Southwark, corn dealer. *Att.* Newcombe, Vine street, Piccadilly.
Myers, D. T. Stamford, Lincolnshire, draper. *Att.* Edwards, jun. Spalding, Lincolnshire.
Odell, P. Sloane square, Chelsea, bricklayer. *Att.* Nelson, King's road, Chelsea.
Ogden, C. Leeming, Yorkshire, worsted spinner. *Att.* Defearc, Kighly.
Potts, C. Longhenton, Northumberland, chandler. *Att.* Clayton and Co. Newcastle upon Tyne.
Pooling, J. jun. Manchester, alehouse keeper. *Att.* Fearnhead, Manchester.
Penney, W. Fox Back lane, Deptford, victualler. *Att.* Henson, Dorset street, Salisbury square.
Piper, J. and Winder, K. Richmond, Surrey, grocers. *Att.* Senior, Richmond.
Paine, R. Raine, Essex, shopkeeper. *Att.* Fillingham, Union street, Whitechapel.
Pearce, J. St. Alban's street, Pall mall, ladies' shoemaker. *Att.* Denton and Co. Field court, Gray's inn.
Poulton, T. Ross, Herefordshire, timber merchant. *Att.* Wilson, Newhouse, Herefordshire.
Percival, J. L. Prescott street, merchant. *Att.* Wilde, jun. Castle street, Falcon square.
Palmer, J. Canterbury, tayler. *Att.* Reynolds, Folkestone.
Rees, D. Llanelly, Carmarthenshire, shopkeeper. *Att.* Davies and Co. Swansea.
Renton, J. Gloucester Terrace, Stepney, master mariner. *Att.* Heaing, Lawrence lane.
Rose, W. Kensington, brewer. *Att.* Allen, Carlisle street, Soho.
Round, J. Pelsall, Staffordshire, factor. *Att.* Holland, Birmingham.
Reppeu, J. and J. Clapham, coal dealers. *Att.* Harman, Wine Office court, Fleet street.
Richards, J. Colchester, draper. *Att.* Serjeant, Colchester.
Rimington, E. Liverpool, timber merchant. *Att.* Barruswell and Co. Liverpool.
Rhodes, W. Friday street, warehouseman. *Att.* Whittaker, Broad court, Long acre.
Robbins, R. Birmingham, plumber. *Att.* Dent, Hanley, Stafford.
Randall, J. Leeds, grocer. *Att.* Lee, Leeds.
Robinson, J. Liverpool, silversmith. *Att.* Phillips, Liverpool.
Rickman, W. Northampton, linen draper. *Att.* Wilkinson and Co. White Lion Street, Spitalfields.
Read, J. Broad street, underwriter. *Att.* Spottiswoode, Tokenhouse yard.
Reek, T. Bishopsgate street, cheesemonger. *Att.* Burt, John street, Crutched friars.
Robinson, T. Manchester, innkeeper. *Att.* Law, Manchester.
Ridley, J. Manchester, tailor. *Att.* Mottie, Manchester.
Seabrook, R. Great Bradley, Suffolk, butcher. *Att.* Cooper, Cambridge.
Salisbury, J. Exeter, cabinet maker. *Att.* Turner, Exeter.
Simpson, G. Copthall Chambers. *Att.* Holmes and Co. Mark lane.
Simpson, G. Copthall Chambers, merchant. *Att.* Holmes and Co. Mark lane.
Stroud, J. Walton upon Thames, Surrey, brick maker. *Att.* Clark and Co. Chertsey.
Stanley, H. Newark upon Trent, scrivener. *Att.* Godfrey and Co. Newark upon Trent.
Seaward, . Union place, Kent road, builder. *Att.* Alcock and Co. York street, Southwark.
Sewell, G. Deptford, victualler. *Att.* Pearce and Co. Paternoster row.
Saunders, M. Strand on the Green, Turnham green, maltster. *Att.* Davies, Warwick street, Golden square.
Spencer, S. Exeter, spirit merchant. *Att.* Daniel, Manchester.
Thomason, R. Staining, Lancashire, corn dealer. *Att.* Startissant, Preston.
Tomlinson, J. and C. Chester, brewers, and vinegar makers. *Att.* Potts and Co. Chester.
Varndell, W. Hartford bridge, coachmaker. *Att.* Vincent, Bedford street.
Vinn, T. Clement's lane, Lombard street, dealer. *Att.* Sarel, Surrey street, Strand.
Woolley, J. P. Walham Green, Middlesex, brewer. *Att.* Taylor, Took's court, Chancery lane.
Woddilove, R. Ainsworth mill, Lancashire, calico printer. *Att.* Seddon, Manchester.
Wright, T. Dulverton, Somersetshire, innkeeper. *Att.* Reuceil, Tiverton.
Washington, J. Ashborne, Derbyshire, sadler. *Att.* Buchannan, Ashborne.
Wain, J. Mount street, Lambeth, merchant. *Att.* Highmoor, Bush lane, Cannon street.
Wood, T. Sheffield, merchant. *Att.* Blakelocke, Temple.
Whithall, C. Fenchurch street, warehouse keeper. *Att.* Carpenter and Co. Basinghall street.
Wills, T. H. Lamb's Conduit street, linen draper. *Att.* Bell and Co. Bow lane, Cheapside.
Wrigley, J. Pitt street, Blackfriars road, hat manufacturer. *Att.* Taylor, Took's court, Cursitor street, Chancery lane.
Woolley, M. Stayley bridge, Lancashire, cotton spinner. *Att.* Halstead and Co. Manchester.
Williams, W. Swineshead, Lincolnshire, grocer. *Att.* Dickinson, Hull.
Williams, R. Oxford street, straw hat maker. *Att.* Denton and Co. Field court, Gray's Inn.
Webb, J. Manchester, calico manufacturer. *Att.* Morgan, Manchester.
Wilkins, J. and Lacey, T. Basinghall street, factors. *Att.* Walton, Girdlers' hall, Basinghall street.
Watkis, T. I. Salford, Lancashire, cotton merchant. *Att.* Heslop, Manchester.
Whitehead, J. Bolton le Moors, Lancashire, hatter. *Att.* Law, Manchester.

CERTIFICATES.

S. Brunn, Charing cross, sword cutler.——J. Thompson, Hand court, wholesale stationer.—J. Richmond, South Shields, merchant.—R. Walker, Leicester, dealer.——J. Phillips, Bradnocks Marsh, miller.—R. Swaine, Halifax; J. Swaine, Skircoat, Halifax; E. Swaine, London; H. and J. Swaine, Halifax; and H. Ramsbotham, Bradford, merchants.—S. Purkiss, Acton Green, carpenter.——T. Bailey, Liverpool, timber merchant.—W. Jones, Liverpool, stationer.—C. Morris, Busiinthorpe, manufacturer.

G. Beaver, Tavistock place, Saint Pancras, stone mason.—J. Powell, Wapping street, coffin maker.——J. Sharp, Phœnix street, Saint Pancras, paper hanger.——S. Storr, Wisbech St. Peter's, plumber.—T. Herbert, Arundel st. merchant.—B. Norden, Exeter street, Strand, grocer.

J. and W. Wilson, Dean's court, St. Martin's le Grand, warehousemen.—J. Alfrey, jun. Carshalton, carpenter.—R. Eades and G. Knowles, Birmingham, siver platers.

J. Bottomley, Leeds, timber merchant.—T. Mitchell, Newcastle upon Tyne, linen draper.—E. Roberts, Bush lane, merchant.—W. Mason, Huntingdon, grocer.—J. Varley, Manchester, drysalter.

R. Partridge, Clement's Inn, merchant.—C. B. Von Essen, Gray's Inn Coffee house, merchant.——J. Paton, Bow Church yard, warehouseman.—S. Payne, 'Change alley, hatter.—P. Baxter, Southampton buildings, mariner.—J. Potter and W. Monkman, Silver street, warehousemen.—S. Houton and S. Rich, Woodstock street, tailors.—J. J. Hopkinson, & Co. Sheffield, saw and edge tool manufacturers.—B. Hunt, Brightheimstone, cabinet maker.

G. Griffen, Tooley street, sacking manufacturer.—W. Nicholls, Minchinhampton, clothier.——J. Jackson, Newington causeway, brush maker.—R. Swincey and Co. Cateaton street, factors.—D. Aichison, Weeden Beck, draper.—R. Nesbitt, Newcastle upon Tyne, grocer.—J. Canning, Birmingham, plater.—G. Grimes, Gt. Warner st. linen draper.—J. Kay and Co. Preston, machine makers.

J. Townson, Plymouth Dock, hatter.—V. Busigney & Co. Liverpool, merchants.

STATE OF TRADE.

Lloyd's Coffee-House, 20th March, 1808.

We feel no trifling sensation of pleasure in being enabled to state, that by reason of the favourable appearance assumed by the negociation pending between this country and America, as reported by the late accounts from that quarter of the globe, commerce in some degree begins to resume its vigour. It is needless to say, that an adjustment of the differences between the United States and Great Britain, is, at this moment, a grand *desideratum* in the mercantile world. America may in most respects reimburse us for the loss we sustain, by the interruption of our intercourse with Russia; and, moreover, may serve as an antidote to the baneful effects which the rigid execution of the French Emperor's designs are intended to produce, in regard to our trade with the Northern parts of Europe. From those places we have, from time immemorial, procured wood, an article absolutely necessary for the carrying on of our commerce with every part of the world; in this valuable commodity North America abounds; and, on the other hand, no part of the world stands more in need of our manufactures.

It is clear, therefore, that America in cultivating an intercoure with England reaps double advantages; as she also finds a ready market for her cotton wool, the vast quantities whereof grown in Georgia and other parts of that continent, would, in case of rupture with Britain, lie totally useless upon the hands of the proprietors, since the consumption of the article in any other part of the globe, is by no means comparable to that of our extensive manufactures.

The commercial equipments for the Brazils are numerous, and the adventurers and speculators attracted by this new commercial magnet are equally so. We trust that they will be careful to make assortments of articles suited to the different markets of Portuguese America; for their government, we would recommend them to assort commodities of the best description for Rio Janeiro; they will not find their account in offering coarse goods for sale at that place; although among the natives of the country articles of this species may meet with purchasers.—We form high expectations with regard to the returns from Brazil; we well know the excellent quality of its tobacco, its sugar, and the wood whereto it gives name. It is to be hoped, that the specimens we shall receive of these, will not derogate from their ancient reputation.

Large quantities of port wine have within a few days been brought into the market; but the prices continue much the same as before; the reason is very obvious, we have little hopes of a further supply, at least for some time; for the same reason we are inclined to think that the prices will gradually rise, in proportion to the distribution of the stock now on hand, which however is very great.

Our manufacturers complain, but we little doubt that what we have already mentioned, will inspire them with hope, and when matters are settled, in the manner we sincerely wish they may be, their meritorious exertions will be crowned with as much success as they can desire.

To a certainty, the GREAT interests of this nation are as yet not shaken as our adversary desires: if distress is felt in some places, others are prosperous; and if occupation is with difficulty procured in some branches of business, and in some towns; yet others find ample resources in their industry, and are even uncommonly full of inhabitants; for instance, we have the best authority for saying, that in the town of Birmingham, about 14 years ago, there were 2,030 houses empty: this was ascertained by the then new measure of purchasing the Land Tax:—whereas, at this present time, the number is very trifling indeed.

Raw sugars sell freely, and some purchases have been made for exportation. The refined market supports its prices, and is rather bare of goods, all the low lumps having been sold for crushing.

Some large sales of coffee have been made this week, at 2*s.* and 5*s. advance.*

At the East India Company's sale just ended, common bohea teas sold about 1½d. per lb. on the average, *advance*; good teas were pretty steady. Congous have *advanced* from 1d. to 2d. per lb. Hysons, if any thing, are rather dearer than at last sale; but Twankays may be quoted from 1d. to 1½d. per lb. *cheaper.*

London Imports from Feb. 19 *to March* 22.

Hides, Hambro'	—	Skins, Deer	— No. 3,844
B. Ayres	—	Chincilla	— 143,838
Horse	—	Leopard	— 68
West India	—	Mogadore do.	—
Hemp, Petersb.	—	Lisb. Lamb	—
Riga	—	Kid	—
Flax, Petersb.	—	Seal	— 2,365
Others	—	Corn, Wheat	—
Iron, Petersb.	—	Barley	—
Swedish	— bars 747	Beans	—
Rags, Hambro'	—	Oats	—
Italian	—	Peas	— lasts 30
Wool, Spanish	—	Wine, Port	—pipes 89
German	—	Others	— — 110
S. America	—	Wood, Dant. Fir	pts. 727
Others	—	Norway do.	— 18
Cotton, W. India bales	—	Dant. Deals	— 827
Surinam, &c.	—	Norway do.	— 1,120
Brazil	—	Sugar cks. 718 boxes	2,450
Demerara	—	Coffee cks. 286 bags	4,114
Georgia	—	Brandy	— pipes —
United States	— 826	Gin	—
Smyrna	—	Rum	— 76
Barbadoes	—	Tallow marquetas	— 409
		Flour	—

PRICE OF MEAT.*

Smithfield, per stone of 8lb. to sink the offal.

	Beef.	Mutton.	Veal.	Pork.	Lamb.
Feb. 29	4s. 6d.	5s. 0d.	6s. 6d.	6s. 0d.	—
Mar. 7	4 6	5 0	6 6	5 0	—
14	4 6	5 0	6 10	6 0	—
21	5 4	5 4	7 0	6 0	—

Newgate and Leadenhall, by the carcase.

Feb. 29	4 4	4 8	6 0	5 8	—
Mar. 7	4 6	4 6	6 0	5 8	—
14	4 4	4 8	6 0	6 0	—
21	4 6	5 6	6 0	6 0	—

	St. James's.* Hay.	Straw.	Whitechapel.* Hay.	Straw.
Feb. 29	£6 5 0	£2 11 0	£6 6 0	£2 8 0
Mar. 7	6 6 0	2 11 0	6 0 0	2 10 0
14	6 10 0	2 14 0	6 6 0	2 16 0
21	6 6 0	2 17 0	6 4 0	2 14 0

PRICE OF HOPS.

Bags.		Pockets.	
Kent	£4 10 to £6 0	Kent	£4 15 to £7 0
Sussex	4 10 — 5 8	Sussex	4 15 — 5 15
Essex	4 10 — 5 15	Farn.	6 0 — 10 10

PRICE OF LEATHER.*

Butts, 50 to 56lb. each	23d.
Dressing Hides	20
Crop Hides for cutting	22½
Flat Ordinary	17
Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb. per dozen, per lb.	34
Ditto, 50 to 70	41

TALLOW,* London Average per stone of 8lb.

Soap, yellow, 102*s.*; mottled, 112*s.*; curd, 116*s.*

Candles, per dozen, 12*s.* 6*d.*; mould, 13*s.* 6*d.*

COALS IN THE RIVER.

	Sunderland.	Newcastle.
Feb. 26	48*s.* 0*d.* to 53*s.* 3*d.*	49*s.* 0*d.* to 58*s.* 6*d.*
Mar. 4	54 6 — 56 6	53 0 — 56 9
11	49 3 — 53 0	51 3 — 57 6
21	53 9 — 54 0	52 6 — 59 0

Delivered at 12*s.* per chaldron advance.

PRICE OF BREAD.

	Peck Loaf.	Half Peck.	Quartern.
Feb. 29	3*s.* 9*d.*	1*s.* 10½*d.*	0*s.* 11¼*d.*
Mar. 7	3 10	1 11	0 11½
14	3 10	1 11	0 11½
21	3 9	1 10½	0 11¼

Those marked thus * are taken at the highest price of the market.

LONDON WEEKLY RETURNS OF WHEAT.

Feb. 20	5,230 quarters.	Average 72*s.*	3½*d.*
26	7,258 — — — —	72	6½
Mar. 4	3,540 — — — —	71	11¾
11	5,637 — — — —	72	4¼

FLOUR.

Feb. 20	10,594 sacks.	Average 61*s.*	9*d.*
26	12,493 — — — —	61	10¼
Mar. 4	11,801 — — — —	62	1
11	15,933 — — — —	60	4¼

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

Amsterdam, 2 us.	35-7	Cadiz, eff.	41
Ditto at sight	34-11	Bilboa	41
Rotterdam, 2 us.	11-2	Palermo, per oz.	92d.
Hamburgh, 2½ us.	34-6	Leghorn	49½
Altona, 2½ us.	34-7	Genoa	45½
Paris, 1 day's date	23-9	Venice, ineff.	52
Ditto, 2 us.	23-13	Naples	42
Bordeaux	23-13	Lisbon	60
Madrid, in paper	—	Oporto	60
Ditto, eff.	41	Dublin	10¼
Cadiz, in pap.	—	Cork	11¼

Agio B. of Holland, 5½ per cent.

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Feb.	11 o'clock Night.	Noon. 1 o'clock.	8 o'clock Morning.	Height of Barom. Inches.	Dryness by Leslie's Hydrom.	
21	29	37	31	30,50	20	Fair
22	30	39	32	,46	18	Fair
23	32	38	35	,37	10	Cloudy
24	35	37	33	,57	15	Cloudy
25	34	37	30	,69	26	Fair
26	30	36	39	,49	20	Fair
27	40	49	39	,38	31	Fair
28	38	48	45	,35	25	Fair
29	45	52	46	,15	10	Cloudy
Mar.						
1	47	52	48	,28	11	Cloudy
2	49	53	46	,31	24	Cloudy
3	47	49	41	,35	31	Cloudy
4	33	51	35	,44	15	Fair
5	35	43	34	,42	27	Fair
6	33	45	33	,42	30	Fair
7	32	41	33	,28	38	Fair
8	32	38	32	,28	21	Fair
9	32	43	33	,32	23	Fair
10	32	41	33	,34	19	Cloudy
11	32	42	35	,32	21	Cloudy
12	33	39	37	,30	15	Cloudy
13	38	42	35	,19	25	Cloudy
14	35	41	35	,10	19	Cloudy
15	34	44	36	29,99	26	Fair
16	37	41	32	,98	25	Fair
17	32	34	29	,99	15	Cloudy
18	32	34	29	,87	15	Cloudy
19	32	37	36	,65	14	Cloudy
20	40	47	40	,55	5	Cloudy

The Average Prices of Navigable Canal, Dock Stock, Fire Office Shares, &c. in March, 1808, at the Office of Mr. Scott, 28, New Bridge Street, Blackfriars, London.

Staffordshire and Worcestershire Canal, £625 per share, dividing £40 per share per annum nett.—Grand Junction, £91. Ditto Bonds of £50 at £43.—Grand Surrey, £45.—Croydon, £50.—Kennet and Avon original, £22.—Ashby de la Zouch, £22.—Basingstoke Canal, bonds of £100 each at £43.—Globe Insurance, 110.—London Assurance, £18 10s. each.—West India Dock Stock, £142 10s. to £143 10s. per cent.—London Dock Stock, £109 per cent.

To Bengal, Madras, or China..... 7 *gs.*
Ditto out and home.. ..... 12 *gs.*
Senegambia..... 10 *gs.*
Madeira..... 6 *gs.* ret. 3*l.*
Windward and Leeward Islands.... 8 *gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Jamaica..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4*l.*
South Whale-fishery and back..... 20 *gs.*
Un. States of America (Brit. ships)..... ———
Ditto (American ships) ..... 10 *gs.*
Malaga and places adjacent..... 10*gs.* ret. 5*l.*
Salonica, Gallipoli, &c..... 20 *gs.* ret. 10*l.*
Lisbon and Oporto ..... ———
Riga, Revel, Narva, or Petersburgh .. ———
Brazil and South America ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Carron, Leith, Perth, and Aberdeen ..... 2*gs.*
Glasgow..... 2 *gs.*
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, Newry, Belfast, and Londonderry..... 2½ *gs.*
Limerick, Galway, or Sligo..... 4 *gs. ret.* 2*l.*
Portsm. Spith. Poole, or Isle of Wight.. 1½ *gs.*
Weymouth, Exeter, Dartm. or Plym.... 2 *gs.*
Bristol, Wales, Chester, Liverp. Whith. . 2*gs.*
Yarmouth, Lynn, Hull, Newcastle, &c... 1½ *gs.*
Alderney, Guernsey, or Jersey..... 2 *gs.*
Inverness, Shetland, Orkney Islands.... 1½ *gs.*
Tonningen (neutrals)..... 2 *gs.*
Gottenburg, Christiana, &c..... ———
Stockholm, &c. ..... 6 *gs.*
Musquito shore, Honduras, &c..... 10 *gs.*
Newfoundland, Coast of Labradore.. 6 *gs.* ret. 3*l.*

Cape G H. or St. Helena (Comp. ships).... 4 *gs.*
Liverpool, Bristol, &c. to Dublin, Waterford, or Cork..... 1½ *gs.*
Lisbon or Oporto ..... ———
Gibraltar..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4*l.*
Madeira..... 6 *gs.* ret. 3*l.*
Jamaica or Leeward Islands ..... ———
Un. States of America (Brit. ships) .. ———
Ditto..... (American ships) ..... 10 *gs.*
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, &c.
To London..... 1½ *gs.*
Lisbon and Oporto..... ———
United States of America (Brit. ships).. ———
Ditto (American ships) ..... 10 *gs.*
West Indies..... 6 *gs* ret. 3*l.*
Liverpool or Chester ..... 20*s.*
The Baltic, to Yarmouth, Hull, &c. &c. ———
Bristol, Lancast. Dublin, &c. ..... ———
Poole and *Dartm.*—*Exeter* and *Plym.* to Newfoundland..... 6*gs.*r.3.
Newfoundland to Jamaica, and Leeward Islands ..... 15 *gs.*
To Lisbon or Oporto..... ———
To any one port in the Unit. Kingdom 8 *gs.* ret. 3*l.*
Jamaica to the U. States of America .... 15 *gs.*
To Quebec, Montreal, Newfoundland.... 12*gs.*
To any one port in the Unit. Kingd. ..... 10*gs.*
Windw. and Leew. Isl. to Un. States Am. 10*gs.*
East Indies to London..... 12*gs.*

Prices Current, March 20, 1808.

American pot-ash, per cwt.	£3	17	0	to	£4	10	0	Mahogany——— ft.	£0	1	5
Ditto pearl	3	10	0		3	19	0	Oak plank, Dantz. —last	11	0	0
Barilla	4	4	0		4	10	0	Ditto American——		none	
Brandy, Cognac .... gal.	1	2	0		1	3	6	Oil, Lucca,—25 gal. jar	uncertain		
Ditto Spanish.....	1	0	0		1	1	0	Ditto spermaceti —ton	89	0	0
Camphire, refined .. lb.	0	4	3		0	4	6	Ditto whale ———	24	0	0
Ditto unrefined cwt.	16	10	0		19	0	0	Ditto Florence, ½ chest	3	5	0
Cochineal, garbled .. lb.	1	0	0		1	12	0	Pitch, Stockholm —cwt.	0	19	0
Ditto East-India....	0	3	3		0	6	6	Quicksilver ———lb.	0	4	3
Coffee, fine ..... cwt.	6	0	0		6	10	0	Raisins, bloom ——cwt.	7	15	0
Ditto ordinary	3	16	0		4	14	0	Rice, Carolina ———	1	17	0
Cotton Wool, Surinam. lb.	0	1	8½		0	1	11½	Ditto East-India ——	2	1	0
Ditto Jamaica ..	0	1	4½		0	1	7	Rum, Jamaica ——gal.	0	5	1
Ditto Smyrna ...	0	1	2		0	1	5	Ditto Leeward I. ——	0	4	2
Ditto East India	0	1	3		0	1	4	Saltpetre, East-India, cwt.	2	11	0
Currants, Zant.... cwt.	4	5	0		4	9	0	Shellack———	5	0	0
Deals, Dantz .... piece	2	10	0		2	13	0	Silk, thrown, Italian—lb.	2	11	0
Ditto Petersburgh..H.	0	0	0		0	0	0	Silk, raw, Ditto ——	1	10	6
Ditto Stockholm	0	0	0		0	0	0	Ditto China——		none	
Elephants' Teeth	30	10	0		34	0	0	Ditto Beng. novi	0	15	0
——— Scrivell	18	0	0		24	0	0	Ditto Organzine	1	11	0
Flax, Riga.....ton	85	0	0		90	0	0	Sugar Jamaica ———cwt.	2	16	0
Ditto Petersburgh	75	0	0		80	0	0	East Indian ——	2	17	0
Galls, Turkey .... cwt.	5	5	0		7	0	0	Lumps ———	5	0	0
Geneva, Hollands.. gal.	1	4	0		1	6	0	Tallow, English ——cwt.	3	19	0
Ditto English	0	9	6		0	14	0	Ditto Russia, white —	3	12	0
Gum Arabic, Turkey cwt.	7	15	0		15	0	0	Ditto———, yellow —	3	16	0
Ditto Sandrach ..	8	8	0		9	0	0	Tar, Stockholm ——bar.	2	2	0
Ditto Tragacanth	24	0	0		26	10	0	Tin in blocks ———cwt.	5	18	0
Ditto Seneca	5	0	0		5	5	0	Tobacco, Maryl. ——lb.	0	1	3
Hemp, Riga.....ton	76	0	0		77	0	0	Ditto Virginia———	0	0	7
Ditto Petersburgh	76	0	0		77	0	0	Wax, Guinea———cwt.		—	
Indigo, Caracca ....lb.	0	9	0		0	11	0	Whale-fins ———ton	28	10	0
Ditto East-India	0	9	3		0	12	0	Wine, Red port —pipe	75	0	0
Iron, British, bars, ton	15	0	0		16	0	0	Ditto Lisbon ———	85	0	0
Ditto Swedish	23	0	0		24	10	0	Ditto Madeira ———	74	0	0
Ditto Norway	24	0	0		25	0	0	Ditto Vidonia ———	70	0	0
Ditto Archangel.....	25	0	0		26	0	0	Ditto Calcavella ———	90	0	0
Lead in pigs———fod.	28	0	0		29	0	0	Ditto Sherry — butt	80	0	0
Ditto red ——— ton	27	0	0		28	0	0	Ditto Mountain ——	65	0	0
Ditto white———	42	0	0		43	0	0	Ditto Claret——hogs.	44	0	0
Logwood chips ——ton	11	10	0	to	12	15	0	Yarn, Mohair ———lb.	0	4	5
Madder, Dutch crop, cwt.	5	12	0		8	0	0				

£0	1	10	
12	0	0	
	—		
90	0	0	
25	0	0	
3	10	0	
1	0	0	
1	4	0	
0	0	0	
0	5	0	
2	12	0	
10	0	0	
3	1	0	
1	11	6	
	—		
1	4	0	
1	4	9	
4	0	0	
4	5	0	
5	6	0	
	—		
3	13	0	
3	17	0	
2	4	0	
	—		
0	1	6	
0	0	9½	
	—		
31	0	0	
105	0	0	
95	0	0	
125	0	0	
85	0	0	
100	0	0	
98	0	0	
80	0	0	
95	0	0	
0	8	10	

STATE OF THE ROYAL NAVY, MARCH, 1808.——Grand Total, 1075.

	Of the line.	50 to 44 guns.	Frigates.	Sloops.	Gun-brigs.	Total.
In Commission	144	20	175	245	219	774
Building	57	0	18	18	10	103
In Ordinary	53	15	61	53	22	204

Daily Prices of STOCKS, from 20th FEBRUARY to 20th MARCH, 1808.

	Bank Stock.	3 p. Cent. Reduced.	3 p. Cent. Consols.	4 p. Cent. Cons. 1780.	3 per Cent. Def.	Navy 5 per Cent.	Long Annuities.	Consol. Short Anns.	5 p. Cent. 1797.	Omnium.	Imperial 3 p. Cent.	Ditto Annuities.	India Stock.	India Scrip.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Annuit.	New Ditto.	Navy and Vict. Bills.	3d. Excheq. Bills.	3½ d. Ditto.	Lottery Tickets. £. s. d.	Consols for Acct.	Irish Omnium.	Irish 5 p. Cent.
Feb. 22	—	64⅜	63¾	82¾		97	18⅛				63¾	7¾	171½		3s.D						par	21			
23	232	64⅜	63¾	82¾		97	18⅛				63¾	7¾			2s.D						par	21			
24	—	—	—	—		—	18⅛				—	—	—		—						—				
25	231¾	64⅜	63¾	82¾		97⅛	18⅛				63¾	7¾	172		3s.D						par	21			
26	231½	64⅜	63⅝	82¾		97⅛	18⅛				63¾	7¾	172		—						1s.P	21			
27	—	64⅜	63⅝	82¾		97⅛	18⅛				—	7¾	—		1s.D						par	21			
29	—	64⅜	63⅝	82⅞		97⅛	18⅛				—	7¾	172½		1s.D						par	21			
Mar. 1	232	64⅜	64	83		97¾	18⅛				—	7¾	173		2s.D						—				
2	—	—	—	—		—	—				—	7 13/16	—		2s.D						1s.P	21			
3	231¾	64⅜	64	83		97⅜	18⅛				63⅞	7 13/16	172½		3s.D						1s.P	21			
4	231½	64⅜	64	shut.		97⅜	18⅛				63⅞	7 13/16	shut.		2s.D						2s.P	21			
5	—	64⅜	64⅛	—		97⅜	shut				63⅞	7 13/16	—		2s.D						2s.P	21			
7		shut.	64⅛			97⅜	—				63⅞	7 13/16			3s.D						5s.P	21			
8		—	64			97⅛	—				63⅞	7 13/16			3s.D						5s.P	21			
9			64⅛			97⅛	—				63⅞	7 13/16			3s.D						6s.P	21			
10			64			96⅞	—				63⅞	7 13/16			2s.D						4s.P	21			
11			64⅛			96⅞	—				63⅞	7 13/16			2s.D						2s.P	21			
12			64⅛			96⅞	—				63⅞	7 13/16			2s.D						5s.P	21			
14			64⅛			96⅜	—				63⅞	7 13/16			1s.D						6s.P	21			
15			64⅛			96⅛	—				63⅞	7 13/16			par						6s.Par	21			
16			64⅛			96⅛	—				63⅞	7 13/16			1s.D						6s.Par	21			
17			64			96⅛	—				—	7¾			par						6s.P	21			
18			64⅛			96⅜	—				64	—			par						6s.P	21			
19			64⅛			96⅛	—				—	7 13/16			par						6s.P	21			
21			64			96¾	—				64	7 13/16			par						5s.P	21			